

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY Illustrated REVIEW OF REVIEWS



October

1904

Edited by ALBERT SHAW

THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN

By Dr. ALBERT SHAW, in "The Progress of the World"

Judge Parker as the Country Sees Him—The Charges of Republican Extravagance—The President's Letter—
The Pension Order Issue—The State Conventions in New York

THOMAS E. WATSON, POPULIST CANDIDATE

By WALTER WELLMAN Illustrated

RUSSIA'S REAL CONDITION, FINANCIALLY AND INDUSTRIALLY

By E. J. DILLON

CAN THE JAPANESE FINANCE A LONG WAR?

By BARON KENTARO KANEKO

GENERAL KUROPATKIN, HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY

By CHARLES JOHNSTON Illustrated

GENERAL NOGI, JAPANESE HERO OF PORT ARTHUR

By SHIBA SHIRO Illustrated

THIS YEAR'S STRIKES AND THE PRESENT SITUATION

By VICTOR S. YARROS

THE BANKERS' CONVENTION AT NEW YORK

By WILLIAM JUSTUS BOIES Illustrated

CHEMISTRY AS A MODERN INDUSTRIAL FACTOR

By CHARLES BASKERVILLE With Portraits

THE GATHERING OF GEOGRAPHERS IN AMERICA

By CYRUS C. ADAMS Illustrated

THE OPENED WORLD

By ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN

THE JUNGFAU RAILWAY: THE STEEPEST RAILWAY IN THE WORLD

By HUGO ERICHSEN Illustrated

AN INTERVIEW WITH GENERAL BOOTH

Illustrated

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN CHINA

Illustrated

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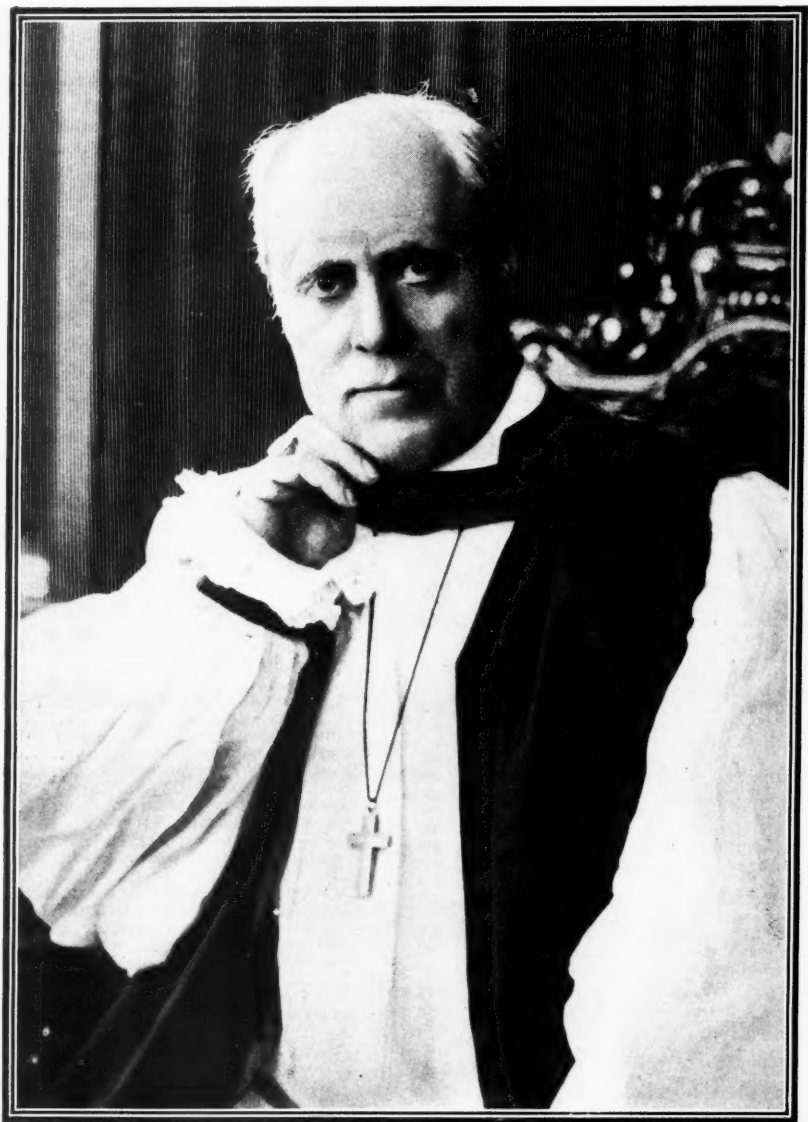
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CONTENTS FOR OCTOBER, 1904.

Rt. Rev. Randall Thomas Davidson. Frontispiece	This Year's Strikes. 430
The Progress of the World—	By Victor S. Yarros.
Opening the Public Schools..... 387	Baron Kentaro Kaneko 434
Labor Conditions Improved..... 387	With portrait.
The Bright Financial Outlook..... 388	Dr. E. J. Dillon, Journalist and Traveler. ... 435
Politics Somewhat Eclipsed by Science..... 388	With portrait.
Some Famous Visitors..... 389	The Salvation Army's Latest Problem. 436
Two Conferences for Law and Peace..... 389	With portrait of Rev. William Booth.
An October Campaign..... 390	The Steepest Railway in the World 438
Judge Parker as the Country Sees Him..... 390	By Hugo Erichsen.
Trusts and the "Common Law."..... 391	Illustrated.
"Self-Government" or Sovereignty?..... 391	Kuropatkin, Head of the Russian Army 441
The Speech on "Extravagance."..... 392	By Charles Johnston.
Facts as to National Expenditure..... 392	With portrait of General Kuropatkin.
On Comparative Statistics..... 392	Nogi, the Japanese Hero of Port Arthur 446
Uncle Sam's Scale of Living..... 393	By Shiba Shiro.
Naval Expense Increasing..... 393	With portrait of General Nogi and other illustrations.
Growth of Army Bills..... 394	Russian Poverty and Business Distress as
Postal Outgo and Income..... 394	Intensified by the War. 449
What Would Judge Parker Do?..... 394	By E. J. Dillon.
The President's Letter..... 394	Is Japan Able to Finance a Long War? 454
Cross-Examining the Plaintiff..... 395	By Baron Kentaro Kaneko.
Panama a Non-Partisan Policy..... 395	The Opened World. 460
Just What Is "Order No. 78?"..... 396	By Arthur Judson Brown.
Roosevelt's Polemics..... 396	What the People Read in China. 464
Results in Vermont and Maine..... 396	With illustrations.
New York Republicans..... 397	The World's Congress of Geographers. 467
Career of Mr. Higgins..... 398	By Cyrus C. Adams.
Is It a Strong Nomination?..... 398	With portraits of prominent geographers.
Other Republican Candidates..... 399	Leading Articles of the Month—
New York Democrats..... 400	Japan's Probable Terms of Peace..... 469
Judge Herrick's Nomination..... 400	Captain Mahan on Port Arthur's Defense..... 470
National Prospects..... 401	Scandinavia's Interest in the Russo-Japanese
Watson and His Campaign..... 401	War..... 472
Rival Party Management..... 402	Bismarck's Chief Disciple on the War..... 474
In Eastern States..... 402	The Japanese Red Cross..... 475
In States Farther West..... 402	Has Japanese Competition Been Overestimated? 476
Recent History in Europe..... 403	Korean Characteristics..... 477
The Near East..... 403	Von Plehve's Successor? A Change of Policy? 478
Labor Troubles in Europe..... 404	Russia a Victim of Anglo-Saxon Imperialism.. 480
Italy's Industrial Crisis..... 404	France's Struggle with the Roman Church..... 483
The Affair of the <i>Lena</i> 404	Marchand and Kitchener at Fashoda..... 485
The Siege of Port Arthur..... 405	Germany's Radical Tax Reform..... 486
Was the Long Defense Justified?..... 405	Ireland's Industrial Resources..... 486
The Baltic Fleet Starts and Stops..... 405	The White vs. the Black and the Yellow Races. 487
Great Britain Finds Red Sea Raiders..... 406	A Proposed Sixteenth Amendment..... 488
Russia and Contraband..... 406	Our Negro Problem, by a Negro..... 490
Battles of Liao-Yang..... 407	The Tariff and the Trusts..... 491
Kuroki and Nodzu Attack..... 407	The Right to Work..... 492
Kuroki Flanks the Russians..... 408	The Most Powerful Locomotive in the World.. 493
Terrible Suffering and Loss..... 408	The Electric Interurban Railroad..... 494
A Great Victory for Japan..... 409	The Perdicaris Episode..... 495
A Masterly Retreat..... 409	The Call for Men as Public-School Teachers... 497
What Will Oyama Do Now?..... 409	An Italian Estimate of American Literature... 498
Will There Be Intervention?..... 410	Alfred Russel Wallace..... 499
British-Tibetan Treaty..... 410	Miracle Plays in Medieval England..... 500
With many portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations.	Progress in French Labor Legislation..... 500
Record of Current Events 411	Home Rule for Wales..... 501
Illustrated.	With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations.
Some Cartoons of the Campaign 414	Briefer Notes on Topics in the Periodicals. ... 502
Thomas E. Watson,—Populist Candidate. ... 419	The New Books. 508
By Walter Wellman.	With portraits of authors.
With portraits of Mr. Watson and his family.	Books Recently Received. 512
Chemistry as a Modern Industrial Factor. ... 424	
By Charles Baskerville.	
With portraits of W. H. Nichols and Sir Wm. Ramsay.	
The Bankers' Convention at New York. 427	
By William Justus Boies.	
With portraits of prominent bankers.	

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most
THE RT. REV. RANDALL THOMAS DAVIDSON, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

(Who is now in the United States, and who will participate in the Triennial Conference of the Protestant Episcopal Church, at Boston, beginning October 5.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXX.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1904.

No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Opening
the Public
Schools.*

The chief autumnal event in American life is the opening of the public schools. This autumn, they have opened more auspiciously than ever before. Never before has there been so prevalent the feeling that upon the successful work of the schools depends the future character and well-being of the nation. The past summer has witnessed a vast and polyglot immigration into this country. The task of assimilating the new population would be almost hopeless without the public schools. The recent growth of New York City has been at an astounding pace, and many great metropolitan problems have had to be faced. Of all New York's public tasks, that of the supply of school facilities in sufficient quantity and of the right sort has been the foremost and the most urgent. The new enrollment of children in New York schools is about 600,000. The additional sittings provided in new buildings to be opened during the year 1904 will have amounted to 60,000; and as the schoolhouses are not sufficient to accommodate the enrolled pupils by 80,000, it follows that one in seven of the children will have to attend on the half-day basis. Happily, everybody fully agrees that, regardless of cost, the city must bend all its energies toward providing good schools for all the children, and this same spirit is now prevailing throughout the entire country. In England, by way of contrast, the school situation continues to be distracted by the bitter fight against the recent Act of Parliament which largely increases the authority of the Established Church over the schools of the people. Many adherents of other churches are offering resistance by refusing to pay their school taxes. In France, furthermore, the school situation is complicated gravely by the unrelenting attitude of the government toward the schools that have in former years been carried on by the various religious orders under direction of the authorities of the Catholic Church.

So large a part of the children of France were instructed in these schools that it will undoubtedly require some years to provide adequately for a supply of elementary schools under the full direction and control of the civil authorities.

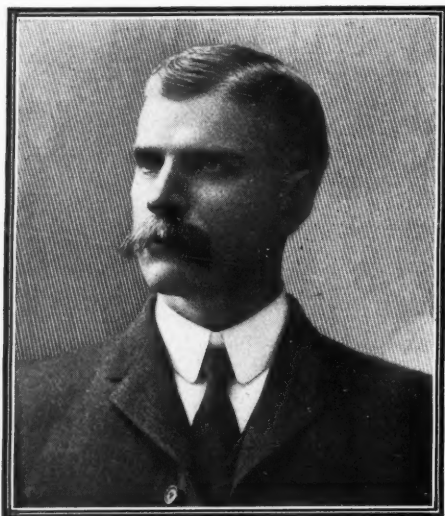
*Labor
Conditions
Improved.*

Along with the opening of the school year, there comes from almost every direction the news of an improvement in American industrial conditions. The great strike in the meat-packing houses at Chicago ended by the surrender of the strikers,—the circumstances in this industrial contest, as in various other recent ones, being ably set forth



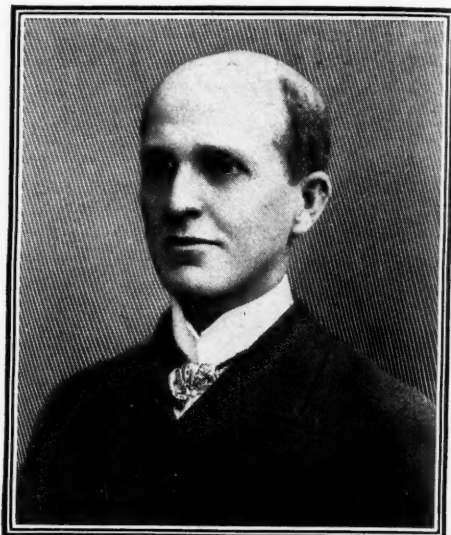
UNCLE SAM: "These are my standing armies!" (School children, 26,000,728; wage-earners, 14,753,766.)

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



MR. WARREN S. STONE, GRAND CHIEF OF BROTHERHOOD OF LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEERS.

(Whose efforts at New York won a victory for motormen on the subway road and averted a strike.)



MR. E. F. SWINNEY, PRESIDENT OF FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF KANSAS CITY.

(Who was chosen, last month, as the new president of the American Bankers' Association.)

in an article written for this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Victor S. Yarros, of Chicago. A stubborn disagreement, which threatened serious strikes that would have tied up the local transit systems of New York City, was fortunately smoothed over last month by mutual concessions that were accomplished through the agency of several skillful labor leaders, on the one side, and some great capitalists, led by Mr. August Belmont, on the other. Mr. Belmont is at the head of the company which is just now opening the underground railroad system of New York, and which also operates the elevated lines. As one of the chief managers of the national Democratic campaign, it would have been embarrassing for him to have a great strike on his hands. Perhaps the labor leaders felt justified in taking some advantage of this situation. It will be remembered that under somewhat parallel circumstances Mr. Mitchell and the leaders of the organized coal miners, four years ago, through Chairman Mark Hanna, succeeded in making favorable terms with the gentlemen who controlled the anthracite railroads in Pennsylvania.

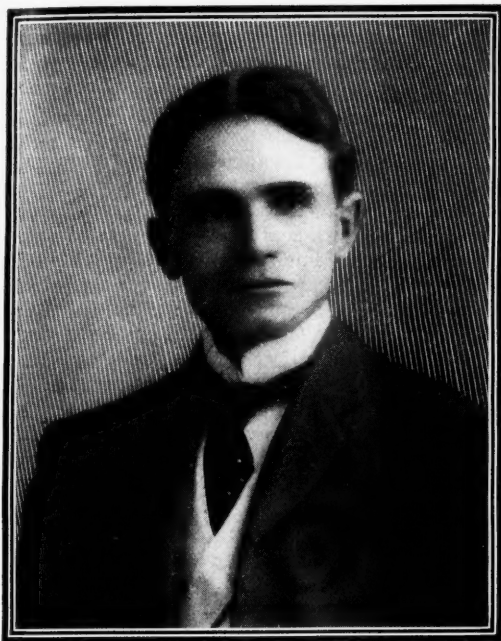
*The Bright
Financial
Outlook.*

There assembled in New York, last month, the yearly convention of the American Bankers' Association. A great number of men connected with national banks, savings-banks, and trust companies came from every part of the country. It was of the

utmost significance to find them almost with one accord bringing from their respective States and communities the news of excellent business conditions, and of a promising outlook for the immediate future. The optimistic tone of these gentlemen made a distinct impression upon the metropolitan business community. Mr. Boies, a prominent New York financial writer and editor, contributes to this number of the REVIEW some valuable observations upon this bankers' convention. His article, together with that of Mr. Yarros,—both of them showing improvement in the financial and industrial outlook,—are important as throwing light upon those underlying conditions that must always affect the outcome of a Presidential contest. Other things being equal, the things that allay discontent are naturally favorable to the party in power.

It has seldom happened in previous Presidential election seasons that so many other strong currents of social life have successfully competed with politics in claiming public attention. A very dominant public interest, naturally, this autumn, is the St. Louis Exposition. As was to be expected, its drawing power has steadily increased, and October and November are expected to be the great months in point of attendance and attractions. One thing that has diverted the public attention somewhat from politics has been the great num-

*Politics Some-
what Eclipsed
by Science.*



DR. CHARLES BASKERVILLE.

(New professor of chemistry in the City College of New York, lately professor in the University of North Carolina.)

ber of distinguished foreign guests who have come to this country for a variety of reasons, but most of them drawn directly or indirectly by the exposition at St. Louis. The exposition itself was liberal enough to conceive the idea of bringing over to its scientific and educational conferences many of the foremost investigators and leaders of thought in European countries. The presence of foreign scholars has given especial interest to several gatherings already held, and will add similarly to others whose dates are set for the present month. Thus, the International Geographical Congress, which held meetings in Washington and New York last month, and about which a well-known expert, Mr. Cyrus C. Adams, writes for our readers in this issue of the REVIEW, was attended by a number of European explorers and scientific authorities of the first order of distinction. Similarly, the Society of Chemical Industry, which was originally an English organization, held its annual meeting in New York last month, under the presidency of Sir William Ramsay, and gave this country much that was fresh to think about in the great field of chemical research and of the application of chemistry to new forms of industry. We are fortunate, also, in having in this number of the REVIEW an article (apropos of this meeting) on

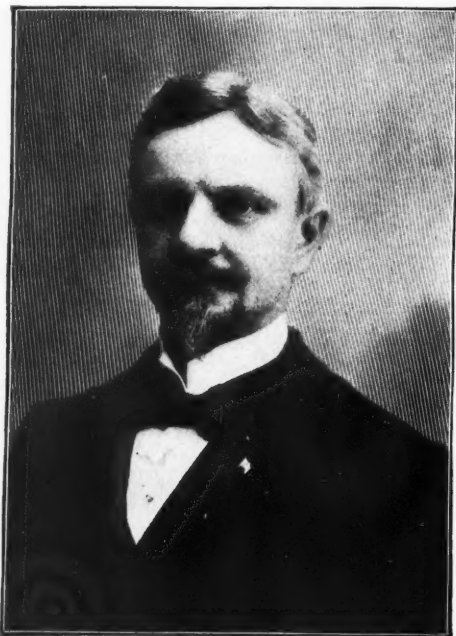
the advance of chemical knowledge, from the pen of Prof. Charles Baskerville, the brilliant young Southern chemist who has just now come to New York and has entered upon his new work as professor of chemistry in the City College. Professor Baskerville is himself the discoverer of one or more new primary substances, or "elements," to use the chemical term; and he was a prominent figure in the recent meeting.

*Some
Famous
Visitors.*

Perhaps most distinguished of all the many esteemed visitors from overseas now in this country is the Rev. Dr. Davidson, Archbishop of Canterbury. In the feeling of welcome to such guests there are no ecclesiastical divisions. The archbishop will be a foremost figure in the triennial conference of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which meets at Boston in the early days of October, and of the results of which there will be some report in our next number. The Rt. Hon. James Bryce, who with many others has been attending the International Congress of Arts and Science at St. Louis, and who is about to give courses of lectures at Harvard and Columbia Universities, is on familiar ground and among hosts of friends when he comes to America. The announcement that the Rt. Hon. John Morley is also soon to come to this country has been hailed here with peculiar pleasure and interest.

*Two Confer-
ences for Law
and Peace.*

Eminent gentlemen from the continent of Europe attended the meeting of the Inter-Parliamentary Union,—this being its twelfth annual session,—which was held at St. Louis in the middle of September. It was presided over by the Hon. Richard Bartholdt, the well-known member of Congress from St. Louis, and among the speakers were Assistant Secretary of State Loomis and Congressman T. R. Burton, of Ohio. The meeting called upon the powers signatory to the Hague convention to intervene at the proper time for the purpose of helping to bring the war in the far East to an end. Its most important action was the adoption of a resolution asking the government of the United States in the near future to call a conference of the powers similar to the Hague conference, in order to carry still further the project of international arbitration. It would certainly be well worth while to call, at Washington, an international conference to deal, among other questions, with all matters that relate to the rights, interests, and duties of neutrals in time of war, and to procure a more general agreement touching such subjects as "contraband." A meeting on behalf of the cause of international peace is to be held at Boston dur-



HON. RICHARD BARTHOLDT, OF MISSOURI.

(Who presided over the Inter-Parliamentary Union, on occasion of its first meeting in America.)

ing the week which begins Monday, October 3. The gathering will be large, and will include an unprecedented number of distinguished European advocates of arbitration and of social progress and reform. Secretary Hay will represent the United States Government in welcoming the guests. The magnitude of the war in the far East, and the dreadful calamities that it entails, assuredly give reason for taking with the utmost seriousness such a gathering as that which philanthropic Boston is about to welcome.

An
October
Campaign.

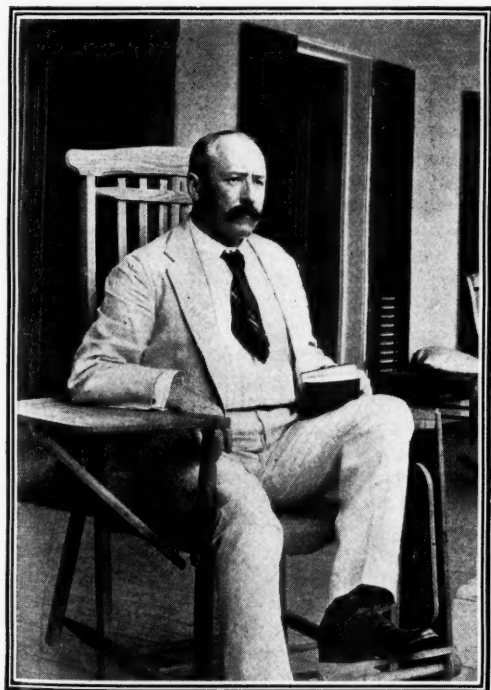
When the Chicago and St. Louis conventions were held, it was agreed on all hands that there should be a minimum of political activity during the months of July and August, and that the campaign ammunition should be expended very sparingly until the beginning of September. Later on, the date for opening hostilities in earnest was postponed until September 15. Finally, in the first week of September, the Republican managers agreed upon a further postponement, and October 1 was fixed as the date for the beginning of a period of active campaigning which should be restricted practically to a single month. In some former campaigns, we have had long and absorbing months of mass-meetings, torchlight pro-

cessions, joint debates, and extreme party sentiment running rife. This year, by way of contrast, the political season has been apathetic beyond all previous experience. President Roosevelt, who is always prompt in everything that he does, could have issued his letter of acceptance at any moment when it was wanted for campaign purposes, but, although it was ready several weeks before it appeared, it was held back until Monday, September 12, nearly three months after he was nominated. Each party relies upon its officially compiled campaign text-book as the principal document to be placed in the hands of its workers and speakers. The Republican text-book was mostly written and put in type before the Chicago convention. It was not distributed, however, until about the 1st of September. The Democrats have been even slower than the Republicans, and their campaign text-book was not expected to be ready until the very end of September or the first week in October, the Hon. Josiah Quincy, of Boston, being the editor-in-chief. As for Judge Parker's letter of acceptance, which was looked forward to as his one great and final utterance upon public affairs and the issues of the contest, the date for its appearance was set as late as September 26.

Judge Parker
as the Country
Sees Him.

The campaign thus far has remained totally devoid of any squarely joined public issues. Nothing as yet has clearly disclosed Judge Parker's personality to the American public, and his selection of topics and mode of presentation have not revealed a very masterful grasp of national affairs, or any detailed acquaintance with them. But this was to be expected. Nothing has happened, or been brought out by his opponents, that in any manner takes away from the prevailing estimate of Judge Parker as an admirable gentleman of fine mental poise and political sagacity. But the progress of the campaign season has made more prominent the fact of his lack of experience in executive work, and especially the absence in his case of a background of experience and familiarity in public matters on the national plane. Thus, in discussing the question of trusts in his speech of acceptance, Judge Parker had said that his studies of the question had convinced him that the common law provided adequate remedies. Subsequently, lawyers of his own party called his attention to the fact that the common law has no application to matters of national concern, and that railroads and industrial corporations doing interstate business could only be dealt with from the national standpoint by virtue of the enactment of federal statutes.

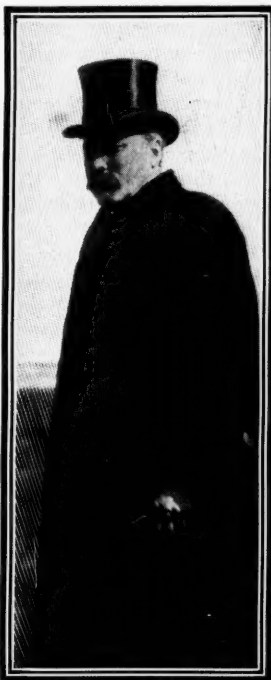
When this was pointed out to Judge Parker, he recognized his mistake readily enough, and it was understood that he would correct it in his letter of acceptance. The matter has importance only as illustrating a certain lack of convictions formed in consonance with the long history, at Washington,—so familiar to constitutional lawyers who have dealt with federal rather than merely State concerns,—of the struggle to bring railroads under public control and to find methods for the protection of the country as a whole against the larger forms of industrial monopoly. For more than thirty years these questions have been very prominent ones, and their consideration by able legal minds in both houses of Congress and in practice before the federal courts has formed a large part of the political and constitutional history of the United States. Judge Parker's experiences, having been confined to a local career on the State bench of New York, have so shaped his thinking that the national aspect of questions like those of the trusts happens to be unfamiliar. No one, however, will doubt his ability to adjust himself readily to the national viewpoint.



HON. ALTON B. PARKER.

(As he spent the summer on his porch at Esopus.)

Another illustration is to be found in Judge Parker's somewhat vague discussion of the Philippine question in his acceptance speech. He committed himself in that document to the idea of "self-government" for the Filipinos, and his most prominent supporters among the leading newspapers were divided in opinion as to whether by self-government he did or did not mean political independence in the sovereign sense. In order to

From the *World* (New York).

MR. PARKER AS HE APPEARED WHEN IN SEPTEMBER HE CAME TO NEW YORK TO DIRECT THE CAMPAIGN.

clear up this point, he addressed a letter to the Hon. John G. Milburn, for publication, in which he declared himself for full independence,—not now, but at some appropriate future time. This does not differ, for any working purposes, from the position that is taken by President Roosevelt, Judge Taft, Mr. Elihu Root, and the Republican leaders. Judge Parker has, however, adopted the view of those who hold that while Philippine independence is a future affair, it is our present duty to express our intentions. This rather attenuated distinction may appeal to the hair-splitting minds of a few gentlemen of academic inclination; but people who are doing things and are in concrete touch with the real phases of such problems as we have on our hands in the management of the Philippine Islands know perfectly well that there is no real question involved in this theoretical discussion. The status of the Philippine Islands has already been fixed by the decisions of the courts. The intentions of the American people as to holding the Philippines were fully expressed in the campaign four years ago, when the subject was before the country. Judge Parker's discussion of the subject, as amended in the Milburn letter, savors somewhat of the attempt to do what Mr. Roosevelt terms "improvising convictions."

*The Speech
on "Ex-
travagance."*

Again Judge Parker had found an opportunity to help shape campaign issues when, on September 8, he was visited at Esopus by a steamboat-load of Democratic editors from different parts of the country who had been brought together at New York in order to consider how best to promote the interests of the party in this campaign. Judge Parker had carefully prepared a written address to the editors. His principal theme was the extravagance of the Republican government in national expenditures. He mentioned no specific instances of improper appropriation of public money, but merely compared the size of the budget during the past three years with its average size in Mr. Cleveland's first term. Judge Parker's advice to the Democratic editors was that they take this theme and ring the changes upon it through the campaign. As party fighting generally goes, this is as legitimate as anything else, provided the facts are stated fairly and not disingenuously. Judge Parker's presentation seems to come a little short of frankness, although no one will say that there was any intention to create a false impression. Thus, he cites the great expenditure of last year, which he gives as \$582,000,000, and then says: "There is an inevitable result to such extravagance." This result, as he proceeds to declare in the next sentence, "is now a deficit of forty-two million dollars, instead of a surplus in the annual receipts of about eighty million dollars, which the present Executive found on assuming control."

*Facts as to
National
Expenditure.*

A fuller statement of our financial condition, however, would have to recognize the fact of enormous reductions of revenue caused by abolishing the taxes imposed at the beginning of the Spanish War. Furthermore, the exceptional outlay of last year was swelled by the inclusion of \$50,000,000 paid to the French company and to Panama for the canal right of way. This is to be regarded as an investment rather than an item of current expenditure. The usual method would have been to issue bonds for such a purpose. Our government, however, was so well provided with money that it could make this valuable acquisition of property,—which includes the Panama Railroad, a large amount of canal excavation, and many other assets,—out of current cash on hand. This appropriation of money was made with the approval of the country at large, and was supported by the Democratic leaders of most of the States that will cast their electoral votes for Judge Parker this year. There has, indeed, since the first administration of Grover Cleveland,—a

period of some twenty years,—been a very large growth in the national expenditure, but Judge Parker will have to go into much detail before he can convince the American people that this general growth of the budget is the mere result of extravagance, and that the Democratic party would take us back to budgets substantially like those of 1886, for example.

*On
Comparative
Statistics.*

Mr. Parker himself particularly invites comparison of the total yearly expenditure of Roosevelt's administration with that of Cleveland's first term. A more useful sort of comparison is one which would also include Mr. Cleveland's second administration. Speaking in round figures, the total ordinary expenditure of the Government in Mr. Cleveland's first administration increased from \$250,000,000 a year to \$300,000,000. Now, it happens that the average ordinary expenditure during Mr. Cleveland's second administration was \$360,000,000. Every one familiar with the history of our finances is aware that expenditures would have averaged fully \$400,000,000 in that period but for the fearful deficits in revenue caused by the failure of the Wilson tariff bill to produce anything like revenue enough to pay the most necessary public bills. The Government was obliged to sell bonds at disadvantageous terms, and, in a time of profound peace, to borrow enormous quantities of money in order to meet running expenses. Under these circumstances, it seems rather absurd for Judge Parker to invite comparisons in the matter of the management of public finances. The last four years of Democratic administration, which Judge Parker pronounces so superior in fiscal management, exhibited deficits exceeding \$150,000,000,—an average yearly deficit of about \$40,000,000.

*How Figures
May Prove
Too Much.*

If, then, as Judge Parker plainly holds, "reckless extravagance" is to be inferred from a total growth of the budget, how shall we characterize the wastefulness of the last Cleveland administration, when we remember that it used, in the ordinary expenses of administration, \$360,000,000 a year, and by so doing ran in debt \$40,000,000 a year, whereas the last Republican administration preceding the first Cleveland term,—namely, the Garfield-Arthur period,—had carried on the Government very comfortably at the rate of about \$255,000,000 a year, and, at the same time, had piled up splendid surpluses of income amounting to much more than \$100,000,000 a year, with which it paid off a large part of the country's interest-bearing public debt? Or, if the mere growth of the budget is to be pre-

sumptively regarded as due to culpable extravagance, what shall we say when we compare the second Cleveland administration with the first one? Judge Parker impressively informs us that "during Mr. Cleveland's first term the average annual expenditure was about \$269,000,000." Why does he omit to tell us that the average annual expenditure during Mr. Cleveland's second term was \$365,000,000? Nothing had happened to make any radical change in Uncle Sam's scale of living in the brief period between the two Democratic administrations, both of which Judge Parker praises for their superior management of Treasury affairs and their freedom from "reckless extravagance and waste of the people's money." Yet the second Cleveland administration was spending the people's money at the rate of \$100,000,000 a year more than the first Cleveland administration, and, in order to have the money to spend, was borrowing a great deal at high rates of interest. There is precisely as much justice and value in this sort of comparative financial statistics as in the sort that Judge Parker presents in his address to the Democratic editors.

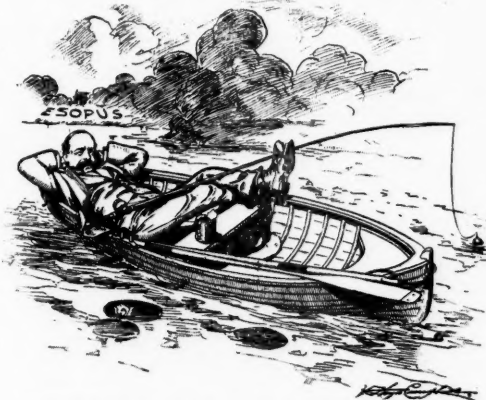
*Uncle Sam's
Scale of
Living.*

The general situation may be easily stated in a few bold figures. But for the failure of the income tax and the disappointing results of the Wilson-Gorman tariff, we should undoubtedly have seen in the last Cleveland administration a fairly well-balanced budget of about \$400,000,000,—that is to say, national income on the one hand, and expenditure on the other hand, would have reached almost that figure. The growth of the country since that time, and the expansion of certain public services, have now increased Uncle Sam's house-keeping bill to a yearly average of about \$500,-

000,000. He spent that much last year, and also purchased some valuable property with additional money that he had saved out of his recent income. Judge Parker does not in the least clarify the subject by trying to make it appear, when he mentions \$582,000,000 as last year's expenditure, that the mere figures themselves are evidence of extravagant living. As respects the general increase of Uncle Sam's housekeeping bills, it will not do to say that this last advance from the \$400,000,000 scale to the \$500,000,000 scale is any more due to "reckless extravagance" than was the increase from the \$300,000,000 scale at the end of Mr. Cleveland's first administration to the \$400,000,000 scale at the end of his second administration. Doubtless, a small part of every year's expenditure is due to log-rolling methods in Congress, and represents some degree of extravagance. But it is well known that measures of that kind are not partisan in their origin or their support. Nearly all of the recent increase in government expenditure is to be accounted for, not by aimless or reckless action, but by the deliberate and careful adoption of certain lines of public policy.

*Naval
Expense
Increasing.*

The naval bill alone accounts for more than one-half of the average annual increase of ordinary expenditure. The growth of naval expenses is not due to recklessness in the use of the money. It is due simply to the increase in the size of the navy. If Judge Parker is willing to come out and say that he would not only stop the increase of the navy, but would reduce the naval establishment to its size and strength in the period previous to the Spanish-American War, his argument will be heard with great interest. But certainly he would find, if he were at Washington, that if he were maintaining our naval policy he would have to foot the bills. Up to the present moment, this policy has been a national one, and in no sense a thing of party controversy. The platform that was carefully prepared on behalf of Judge Parker by his closest friends for adoption at St. Louis contained a plank just as unequivocal in its advocacy of the policy of naval growth as the plank in the Republican platform. This indorsement of the navy was in the platform as sent out to the country from St. Louis. Subsequently, in the compromises and revisions of the last hours of the convention, this plank was somehow dropped out. Nothing to the contrary was adopted, however, and there is ample reason for telling any intelligent foreigner who might ask questions on the subject that the recent policy of developing a strong navy in this country has had the approval of thoughtful public men in both parties,



JUDGE PARKER: "If I could only hook a real issue."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

and that it has gone forward with a remarkable steadiness, and with much useful and sensible coöperation at Washington, regardless of party lines. Let it be repeated, then, that this thoroughly indorsed national policy of creating a strong American navy accounts for more than one-half of the recent increase in Uncle Sam's annual expenditure of which Judge Parker asks Democratic editors to complain.

*Growth
of
Army Bills.*

In the last Cleveland administration, the army cost Uncle Sam just about an even \$50,000,000 a year. This included coast defenses and all sorts of outlays under direction of the War Department. For as large and important a country as ours, the army was too small. It had to be greatly expanded for service in Cuba and the Philippines under Mr. McKinley's administration. It has been much reduced under Mr. Roosevelt's administration, and carefully reorganized under legislation which Congress has enacted with the most studied regard for the country's interest. The yearly expenditures of the War Department, including fortifications, coast-defense outlays, and other items, are now well on toward \$100,000,000. The size of the army is reduced to the minimum point established by law. It is not likely that a Parker administration could materially reduce the War Department estimates. In other words, Mr. Parker's Secretary of War would ask for just as much money as Secretary Root or Secretary Taft has been asking for. Yet this inevitable and well-considered increase in the cost of the military establishment accounts for nearly all the rest of the added expenditure to which Judge Parker refers as indicating "reckless extravagance."

*Postal
Outgo and
Income.*

In those sessions of Congress when a river and harbor bill is passed, or an omnibus bill providing new post-offices or federal buildings for a good many cities and towns, there is likely to be some extravagance involved; but there is nothing in all the work of the government at Washington on so strictly non-partisan a basis as a river and harbor bill. It is to be noted that the newspapers which have a reason for wishing to make the current government expenditures appear especially large frequently add in the outlay of the Postal Department, and by such means they bring last year's total of appropriations up to \$781,574,000. The rapid increase of free rural delivery, and the growth of the business of the postal service in other directions, have made a large recent growth in postal expenditures. Yet, in spite of the better service given to the

public, there has been a corresponding growth in the postal revenue. Thus, it is always the endeavor of the postal administration to make the service as nearly as possible self-supporting. It now comes within, perhaps, 3 per cent. of that desired balance. In Mr. Cleveland's time, on the other hand, the postal deficit amounted to about 10 per cent. of the total postal receipts.

*What Would
Judge
Parker Do?*

Judge Parker is not, then, wholly justified in his view that the mere increase in the budget as compared with a period twenty years back can be cited as sufficient proof for his charge of reckless extravagance against the Roosevelt administration and the last two Republican Congresses. He must mention particulars, and say plainly whether or not he would radically alter the main lines of policy that the country has marked out. Uncle Sam is spending a large amount of money, but he is doing it upon a deliberate plan and system. He is not doing it through any reckless drift into spendthrift habits. He has the money to spend, and he desires the results that the money obtains. The one thing that Judge Parker has told us with precision and definiteness is his determination under no circumstances to be a candidate for a second term if elected this year. But he has also pointed out that even if he is elected the Senate will be sure to remain Republican during his term of office. Under such circumstances, it is not likely that his influence would avail to secure any change of existing military laws, nor is it probable that he could bring about very much reduction in the cost of the naval establishment, although he might be able to prevent its further increase. There has been remarkable and very valuable progress in a great number of the services of the United States Government. The Agricultural Department, in its varied and increasing activities, is, for example, costing much more than in former years; but every dollar Uncle Sam spends upon his Agricultural Department is worth a good many dollars to the people of the United States. It would be the height of stupidity to cripple such a department for the mere sake of trying to show that a Democratic administration could squeeze the government expenditures down to a point just a little smaller than those of the preceding Republican government.

*The
President's
Letter.*

The character of the work Uncle Sam has been carrying on, and the results that he has undertaken to secure for the expenditure of his money, are set forth with a masterly array of statement and argument in President Roosevelt's letter of ac-



ceptance, which was dated Oyster Bay, September 12. The document is not a short one, for it contains about twelve thousand words; but the reader who goes through it carefully will find it terse and condensed rather than diffuse. It is long because it deals with many topics, and because it embodies a vast amount of concrete information. On this matter of public expenditure, Mr. Roosevelt, having first shown the error of the statement that there was a deficit last year, proceeds, in a very spirited and suggestive enumeration of useful public services, to show the difference between a true and a false economy. Mr. Roosevelt's mature and statesman-like grasp of the national situation has never been shown to better advantage in any utterance of his than in this comprehensive argument in defense of Republican methods and policies. Above all, it is refreshing in its directness, its freedom from mere platitude, and its avoidance of vague and ambiguous phrasing. Mr. Roosevelt, of course, is presenting a party document for campaign use, and is dwelling upon the virtues and good achievements of the party and passing over its faults and defects. Nothing else was to have been expected. Taking up the Panama matter, he extols the policy that has been adopted and that has passed into history, and declares that his opponents can only criticise what has been done by first misstating the facts. He presents with fine cumulative effect the record of achievement in foreign policy.

The stage has been reached in the campaign where the country would like direct statements on the part of the gentlemen who are asking it to repudiate Mr. Roosevelt in order to put the reins of authority into their hands. Mr. Roosevelt, at least, appears to take the country entirely into his confidence. He tells what he believes and intends. The country would now like to know what the gentlemen of the opposition believe and intend. There must be some chance, in other words, to

cross-examine the plaintiff. Would they sell the ships and discharge the enlisted men of the navy, and close the Naval Academy at Annapolis? Would they change the present law which fixes the minimum of the army, and reduce the force to the status that preceded the year 1898? If so, they would have to abandon the fortification and coast-defense policy which was the one great hobby of their former mentor, Samuel J. Tilden. They are trying to make scandal out of the acquisition of the Panama Canal property and to put the President in the position of a violator of law and of international good faith in that business. Obviously, the President was carrying out the instructions of law as embodied in the statute authorizing him to secure a Panama right of way if possible.

The Panama Canal solution has been *Panama a Non-Partisan Policy.* accepted by the country, and by all the nations of the world, including Colombia itself, as a fact of history as little revocable as the Louisiana Purchase. What practical object has the "Constitution Club" in mind in slurring the President of the United States and casting reflections upon our State Department and our government in the matter of this Panama solution? It was, in fact, a non-partisan, patriotic, solution,—one which either party would have given almost anything to have been able to claim for itself as a party



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS A PHRENOLOGIST.

"It is difficult to find out from our opponents what are the real issues upon which they propose to wage this campaign."—Roosevelt's letter of acceptance.

From the News (Nashville).

triumph. One of the best things about it was the evidence it gave that the people of this country are not so party-bound that they cannot from time to time act together sensibly in the accomplishment of a beneficent plan. It was the public opinion of the country, Democratic as well as Republican, that supported President Roosevelt in the honest, business-like, and loyal proceedings which have resulted in our entering upon the great Panama project. The President's position upon the supremacy of the Government and its relation to interstate commerce and the trust question is so well known that it is not necessary to do more than refer here to the restatement in his letter of what has been attempted in that direction, and also in the endeavor to secure justice and fair play for all citizens at home or abroad, regardless of race, creed, or economic condition.

*Just What
Is "Order
No. 78?"*

Some of those who have attacked Mr. Roosevelt on account of his pension order have managed to spread the impression that it is an order which places all veterans of sixty-two years of age on the pension roll. This is not the case. The pension order does not put all veterans of sixty-two on the government pay-list. It does not, indeed, put anybody on the list. It has no bearing upon any cases excepting those of manual workers dependent upon their own efforts who come forward with affidavits and positive evidence to the effect that they are partially disabled. In those cases, the Pension Office, under Order No. 78, will recognize the fact of advancing years as in itself a general evidence of declining physical ability and declining opportunity; and the experience of the office in dealing with this law for, now, a long period of years has simply shown that it is fitting and appropriate to establish the presumption that one-half disability begins at the age of sixty-two rather than at the age of sixty-five. The issuance of executive orders cannot change the law of Congress; and Order No. 78 does not, in fact, entitle any man to a pension since the issuance of the order who was not equally entitled to it before. In other words, if the semi-disability for which Congress undertook to provide does not actually exist, the applicant cannot properly be put on the pension rolls even though he be a hundred years old. If there is any real question to be raised at all, it should be one that does not touch the executive order, but rather the practical way in which, under Commissioner Ware and the working force of the Pension Bureau, such an order is executed in detail. If the opponents of President Roosevelt's administration are prepared to say that

Commissioner Ware and the officials of the Pension Office are crowding the lists with new pensioners who have no right under the law to receive public money, let them say so. Mr. Roosevelt remarks, in his letter of acceptance, that "the order in question is revocable at the pleasure of the Executive," and, he proceeds, "if our opponents come into power, they can revoke this order and announce that they will treat the veterans of sixty-two and seventy as in full bodily vigor and not entitled to pensions." The President holds that in order to meet squarely an issue that they have raised the Democrats must state concretely what they themselves intend to do if they get the opportunity.

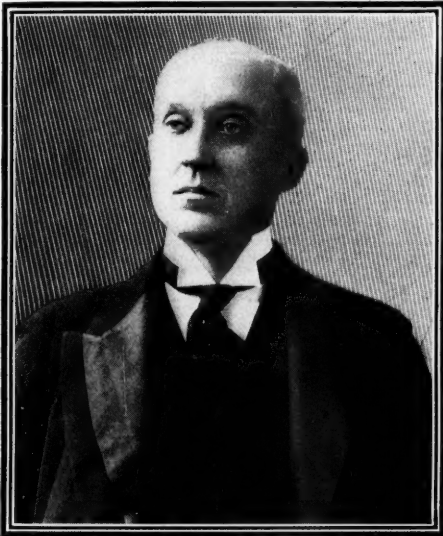
*Roosevelt's
Polemics.*

In the President's rather extended discussion of the tariff question, he is avowedly controversial. He does not find, in comparing the various utterances, attitudes, and records of the Democratic party, any evidence of consistent intention as regards a tariff policy. He does not content himself, however, with throwing doubt upon the Democratic tariff position, but proceeds to present the subject in the light of his own present views. He believes in the maintenance of the protective policy, and in the rearrangement of schedules as conditions require. He makes a stout-hearted argument to show that the development of agriculture has been due to the growth of our varied industries under the protective system, and that the farmer as well as the wage-earner is to be regarded as a direct beneficiary of that system. His argument on the policy of the United States in the Philippines will not cause any relenting in the breast of a single member of the band of anti-imperialists. But it will impress the ordinary citizen, although, to be sure, the subject is one that was settled four years ago and is in no active sense before the people of the country this year.

*Results in
Vermont and
Maine.*

The Vermont and Maine elections, which occurred, respectively, on September 6 and September 12, were contested upon national issues and with the help of prominent speakers on both sides. It had been practically agreed in advance by all the political statisticians of both parties that the Democrats would have to bring the Republican plurality well below 25,000 in Vermont in order to feel at all encouraged as to the drift of Eastern sentiment. They were unsuccessful, however, and the Republican plurality exceeded 31,000, which was justly regarded as a very favorable sign of a general Roosevelt victory in November. Governor-elect Bell received 48,077

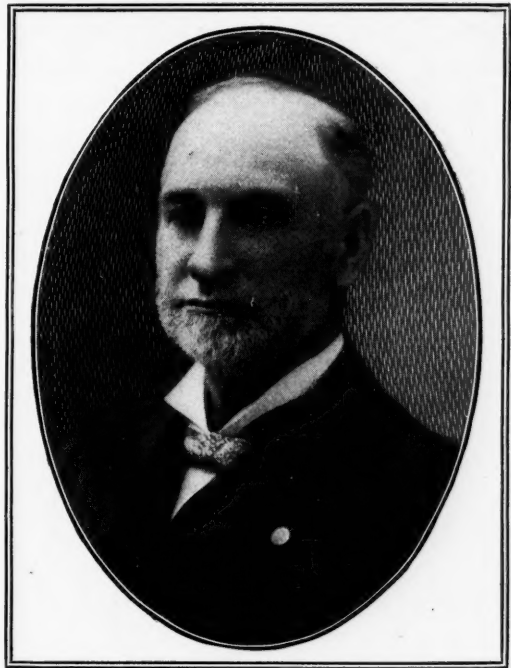
votes, and Mr. Porter, the Democratic nominee, polled 16,521. Even more importance was attached to the election in Maine. The Democrats had made up their minds to cut the plurality down to 15,000. The Republicans had hoped to maintain it at as high a figure as 25,000. It was the claim of the conservative Democrats who nominated Judge Parker that the great Republican majorities in the Eastern States four years and eight years ago had been rolled up by the sound-money Democrats voting for McKinley in order to defeat Bryanism. It was the prevailing argument of these gentlemen that



HON. WILLIAM T. COBB.

(Elected governor of Maine on September 12.)

the return to a "sane and safe" basis would bring all these Eastern Democrats back into the fold and assure to the Democrats, as against Roosevelt, a full victory in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, a possible victory in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and the moral effect of greatly reduced pluralities in the September election of Maine. It was admitted that to justify the defeat, at St. Louis, of Hearstism and Bryanism from the standpoint of practical politics, the Maine plurality must be cut down to 15,000 or less. It is no secret that in August the Democrats were hoping to bring it down as low as 10,000. Party harmony had been restored in Maine, and there was no apparent local cause to prevent the securing of a normal party vote. The Republicans, on their side, felt that they must hold the Maine plurality up to 25,000 in order to make any impression upon



HON. CHARLES J. BELL.

(Elected governor of Vermont on September 6.)

the country. The returns, two days after the election, indicated a total vote of 78,460 for Mr. Cobb, the Republican candidate for governor, and a vote of 51,330 for Mr. Davis, the Democratic candidate,—making a plurality of 27,130. While, of course, this proves nothing final as to the way New York and Indiana will vote in November, it indicates a popular approval in the East of Roosevelt and the administration that is not likely to be completely reversed by anything that can be said or done in the month of October.

*New York
Republicans.* The political conditions in the State of New York are so complex that neither side can afford to rest in the assurance of victory. And since New York has so large a block of electoral votes (39), the whole of which may be carried one way or the other by the cast of a single ballot, the politicians all understand how well worth while it is to strive for so great a prize. It was a source of disappointment to many Republicans both in New York and throughout the country that Mr. Elihu Root decided that circumstances would not allow him to return to public life. He would have been unanimously nominated for the governorship of New York but for positive



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HON. FRANCIS W. HIGGINS.

(Lieutenant-governor of New York, who has been nominated for governor.)

declarations on his part that he could not and would not accept a nomination. Leading Democrats had privately expressed the opinion that with Mr. Root at the head of the Republican State ticket the Republicans would carry New York beyond a doubt, while with almost any other candidate running for governor it would be possible to raise a hue and cry against Plattism and Odellism, and thus to make the State probably Democratic. Mr. Root was declared by these Democrats to be the one New York Republican of great prestige, influence, and efficiency whose candidacy would not have been regarded as due to any influences except his own obvious fitness. His selection would have been ascribed to an overwhelming public opinion rather than to any political manager or managers. The withdrawal of Mr. Root's name from the list of eligibles led to the rapid elimination of all names except two. One was that of Mr. Timothy L. Woodruff, the leader of the Brooklyn Republicans, and for three terms lieutenant-governor of the State. The other was that of

Mr. Francis Wayland Higgins, a successful merchant of Olean, in Cattaraugus County, New York, who secured the nomination.

*Career
of Mr.
Higgins.*

Mr. Higgins' official career in New York politics began with his election as a State Senator in 1893 from a district made up of the three counties lying at the extreme west end of the southern tier, bordering on Pennsylvania, these being the counties of Chautauqua, Cattaraugus, and Allegany. Incidentally, and for the benefit of young students of geography who are just resuming the year's school work, it is to be remarked that these counties of the State of New York belong to the Mississippi Valley. They are drained by the Allegheny River and its tributaries into the Ohio, and so into the Father of Waters. Mr. Higgins remained in the State Senate, serving four successive terms, until, two years ago, he determined to retire from politics. He was, however, nominated for lieutenant-governor on the ticket with Governor Odell, and was elected in November, 1902, to the office which he now holds. Mr. Higgins is admitted by everybody to be a man of excellent private character and untarnished public repute. His record in the State Senate was creditable in the highest degree. He belongs to the better class of intelligent business men fitted for the direction of affairs.

*Is It a
Strong
Nomination?*

It had been decided that the Republican convention at Saratoga should this year be an open one; that is to say, the convention itself should select the ticket rather than merely ratify a ticket arranged for it by the managers of the machine. It would be almost impossible, however, without a revolution in methods, to have a really free and open convention of either party in the State of New York. Where there is apparent clashing, it is between rival managers, and the members of the convention oppose one another only in their capacity as adherents of one manager or the other. In the Saratoga convention, this year, the Woodruff candidacy was backed by Senator Platt, and the Higgins candidacy by Governor Odell, who is also chairman of the State Republican Committee and the now unquestioned leader of the party organization. Mr. Woodruff withdrew before a ballot could be taken, and on his motion Mr. Higgins was nominated unanimously and by acclamation. In a negative sense, Mr. Higgins' candidacy is well regarded. It remains to be seen how much positive strength it can contribute this year to the Republican cause, and, further, it remains to be seen whether or

not the imputation that Mr. Higgins is Governor Odell's personal selection can be made to count anything against him with the voters. There seems every reason for the opinion that, if elected governor, Mr. Higgins would show decisive qualities. He is popular and esteemed in the western end of the State, and his chief deficiency, from the party standpoint, would seem to be the slight extent to which he is known to the voters in New York City.

**Other
Republican
Candidates.**

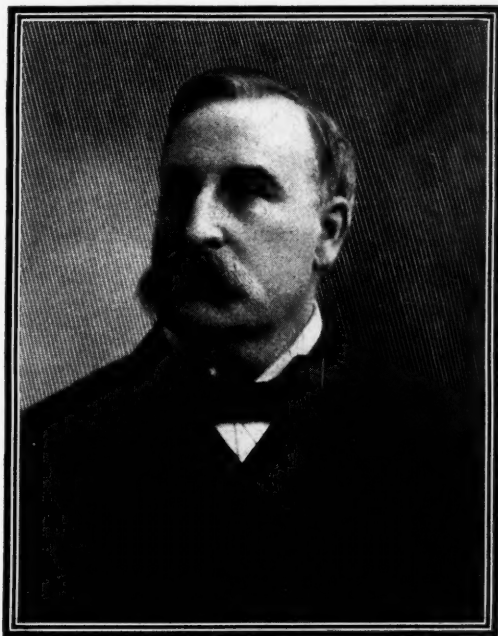
For lieutenant-governor, the convention nominated Mr. M. Linn Bruce, a New York lawyer, forty-four years old, Mr. Higgins being forty-eight. Mr. Bruce has not held office, but has been active as a political speaker, and served as chairman of the Republican County Committee of New York last year when Mr. Seth Low was running for mayor. When Judge Parker, on accepting the nomination for the Presidency, resigned his post as chief judge of the Court of Appeals, Governor Odell appointed Judge Edgar M.



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MR. M. LINN BRUCE, OF NEW YORK.

(The Republican nominee for lieutenant-governor of New York.)



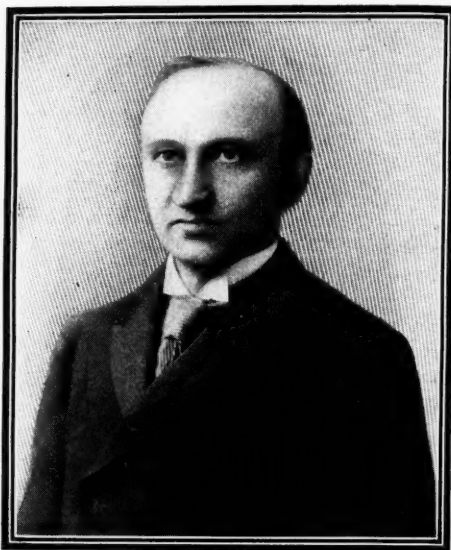
JUDGE EDGAR M. CULLEN.

(Who will succeed Judge Parker as chief judge of the New York Court of Appeals.)

Cullen to that office. Judge Cullen is a Democrat, and has been on the State bench since 1880. He was designated by Governor Roosevelt, in 1899, for the Court of Appeals. The Republican convention at Saratoga confirmed Governor Odell's temporary designation by nominating Judge Cullen for Judge Parker's post as chief judge, this being an elective office. It was thought that the Democrats could hardly do otherwise than ratify this nomination of a good judge, well known to belong to their own party, although it was reported that Governor Odell had thereby embarrassed ex-Senator David B. Hill, the Democratic chief, who had previously mapped out a different programme. The Democrats, in their convention at Saratoga, on September 20, concurred in the choice of Judge Cullen, who will therefore succeed Judge Parker as chief judge of the Court of Appeals without opposition. For another vacancy in the Court of Appeals, the Republicans nominated Judge William E. Werner, who has been long on the State bench. Other names on the full State ticket are principally those of the present holders of the offices. The platform is orthodox in its party doctrines and praises President Roosevelt.

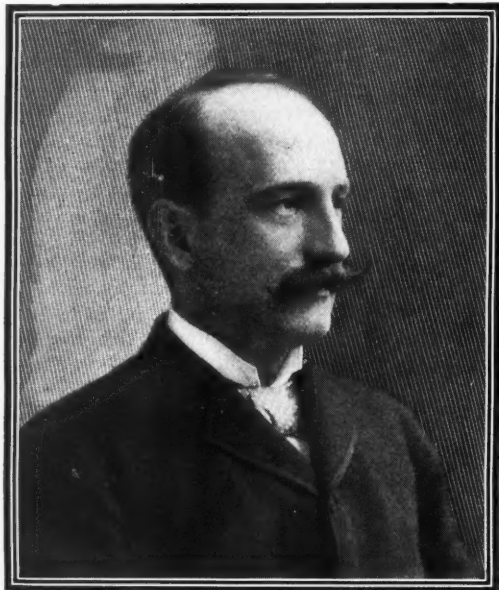
New York Democrats.

It was evident that the Democrats, in their search for a winning candidate for the governorship, were waiting to see what the Republicans would do. If Mr. Root had been nominated, it seems to have been the plan to nominate either Mr. Lamont, formerly Secretary of War, or Mr. Edward M. Shepard. The selection of Mr. Higgins gave fresh impetus to the candidacy of Mr. Stanchfield, of Elmira, the unsuccessful nominee of two years ago, and there was a revival of interest in the idea of nominating the popular and aggressive district attorney of New York, Mr. William Travers Jerome. There was eager consultation among the Democratic leaders when it was found that Higgins would head the Republican ticket, and Judge Parker himself made a memorable trip to New York on the yacht of Mr. McDonald (Mr. Belmont's associate in the building of the underground railroad and in other large enterprises), where Mr. Parker established headquarters at the new Hotel Astor and held protracted conferences (stated to be of the most vital importance) with the national campaign leaders and the heads of the Democracy for the State and city of New York. It was supposed that as a result of these conferences the plans for carrying New York State had been thoroughly digested and the candidate for governor selected. The Democratic convention met at Saratoga on September 20, a week later than that of the Re-



JUDGE WILLIAM B. HORNBLOWER, OF NEW YORK CITY.

publicans. The great speech of the Republican gathering had been made by the Hon. J. Sloat Fassett in his capacity as temporary chairman. The corresponding oratorical effort at the Democratic convention was assigned to Judge William B. Hornblower, an eminent lawyer and public speaker.



HON. J. SLOAT FASSETT, OF ELMIRA.

(The orator of the Republican convention.)

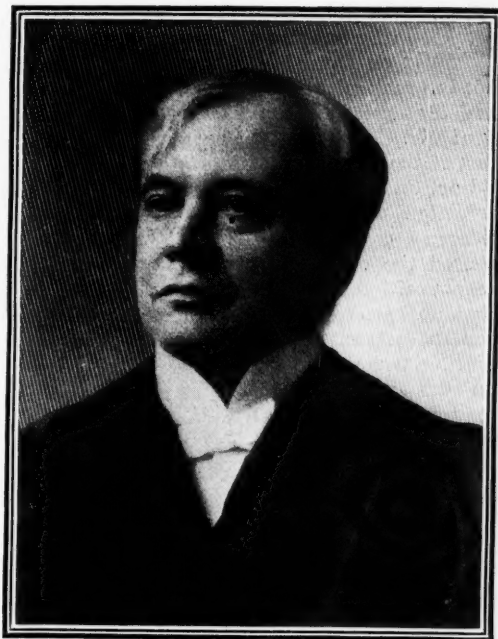
Judge Herrick's Nomination.

A candidate for governor was agreed upon only after protracted conferences. At one time it seemed probable that Comptroller Grout, New York City's chief financial officer, would be chosen, but he was opposed by Tammany. The choice finally fell upon Judge D. Cady Herrick, of Albany, for some years past a Supreme Court justice, and a member of what is known as the Appellate Division of the New York State Supreme bench. Before going on the bench, Judge Herrick was an active lawyer and a conspicuous Democratic politician of the city and county of Albany, where for many years he was the inveterate opponent within the party of the leadership of David B. Hill. Lately, however, there seems to have been full reconciliation. Judge Herrick has long been upon particularly cordial terms with Tammany Hall, and the final agreement upon him on September 21 was said to be due to the belief of Judge Parker and the campaign managers that the candidate must be a man in the fullest sense agreeable to that organization. For lieutenant-governor, the man selected was Mr. Francis Burton Harrison, now a Tammany

Representative in Congress, a son of the late Col. Burton Harrison, and of a mother who is one of our best writers of fiction.

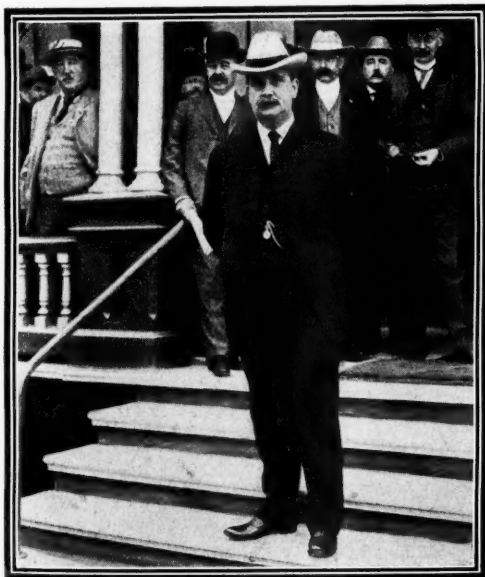
*National
Prospects.*

The Democrats are counting New York with their reliable assets. The Republicans have the State in their doubtful column. The Democrats can figure no way to elect Judge Parker without New York, whereas the Republicans feel fairly confident of carrying enough other States to elect Roosevelt even if the Empire State should return to its normal Democratic allegiance. Hitherto, the Tammany cohorts have not been zealous for Parker, nor have they been tactfully treated by the managers. Usually, however, before election time, Tammany is pacified by some sort of practical consideration, and so it is likely to be this year. More dangerous than the possible Tammany dissatisfaction is the scarcely veiled willingness of the Bryan-Hearst elements to see Judge Parker lose New York and the country. Both these leaders propose to maintain their party regularity and to give ostensible support to the ticket; but the Hearst newspapers have been somewhat less than convincing and irresistible in their work for Parker. They have, on the other hand, treated the Populist candidate, Mr. Thomas E. Watson, with much consideration.



JUDGE D. CADY HERRICK, OF ALBANY.

(Nominated by the Democratic convention at Saratoga, on September 21, for governor of the State of New York.)



GOVERNOR ODELL AT THE SARATOGA CONVENTION OF THE NEW YORK REPUBLICANS.

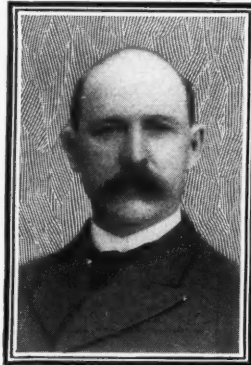
(He is managing the New York State campaign of his party.)

*Watson
and His
Campaign.*

The only metropolitan newspaper that printed Watson's great speech of acceptance in full was the New York *Evening Journal*. Let us here call attention to Mr. Walter Wellman's remarkable tribute to Mr. Watson in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. In our July number appeared an article on the Republican candidate by a friend and supporter eminently qualified to present Mr. Roosevelt's character and his public and private qualities to the country. In our issue for August, the personality and fitness of Judge Parker were set forth by Mr. Creelman, whose relation to Judge Parker and his candidacy gave him better qualifications than any other writer. Instead of selecting as the writer of a sketch of the Populist candidate one of his political supporters, we have called into service the pen of a fair-minded but independent political writer, Mr. Walter Wellman, whose high estimate of Mr. Watson is, therefore, the more significant. It is not possible to make any sort of estimate of the strength at the polls that the Populist ticket will secure, but there is a fair chance that Mr. Watson may win the votes of a considerable percentage of the men who have hitherto followed Mr. Bryan devotedly, and of those who hoped to nominate Mr. Hearst at St. Louis.

*Rival
Party
Management.*

President Roosevelt returned to Washington from his sojourn at Oyster Bay on Thursday, September 22. He has kept in touch with the campaign situation, but has not interfered in any way with the full authority of Mr. Cortelyou as chairman. The operations of the Republican campaign have been carried on, under Mr. Cortelyou's direction, with a perfection of system and a lack of friction that may well have aroused the envy of the opposition. The Democrats have not been so fortunate in securing perfect system or entire harmony in their managerial work. Mr. Taggart, the chairman, has been under constant criticism, and last month he was said to have been practically superseded at the New York headquarters, Senator Gorman, of Maryland, being brought in as the real manager,—Judge Parker himself opening headquarters at the new Hotel Astor, in order to spend a number of days each week in close touch with his managers. It was understood last month that the Democrats would try to broaden their efforts and make them more aggressive.



WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS.
(Democratic candidate for
governor of Massachusetts.)

*In
Eastern
States.*

Thus, besides their fight in the group of States nominally admitted to be doubtful, they were planning to push the war resolutely into other States. In Massachusetts, they secured for their candidate for governor a very popular business man, Mr. William L. Douglas, of Brockton, the shoe manufacturer, whose face is familiar to all newspaper readers. The Connecticut Democrats, who will make a strenuous effort to carry their State, have nominated Judge A. Heaton Robertson, of New Haven, for governor. The Republican convention met a week later at Hartford, in the middle of September, and nominated Lieut.-Gov. Henry Roberts, of that city, for the governorship. The Bryan men are said to be not well pleased with the Connecticut Democratic ticket. Like New Jersey, however, Connecticut must be included in the forecasts of a Parker victory. The Republicans in New Jersey have nominated for the governorship a well-known State leader, ex-Senator Edward Casper Stokes. The Demo-

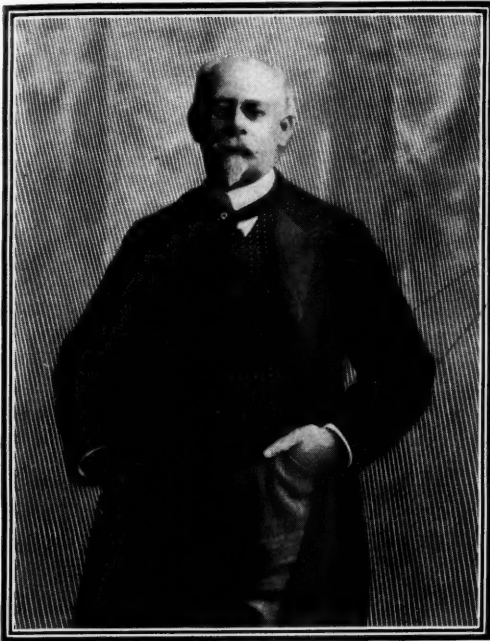
cratic convention had already nominated Mr. Charles C. Black, of Jersey City. In Delaware, the Democrats are running Hon. Caleb S. Pennewell, of Dover, for governor, and there are two Republican tickets, with compromise probable.

*In States
Farther
West.*

The prospects in Indiana and Illinois did not seem bright, but Mr. Taggart maintained his air of cheerfulness and confidence with respect to his own portion of the country. Great hopes were placed by the Democrats, furthermore, upon the situation in Wisconsin. They have put in nomination for governor Hon. George W. Peck, the journalist and humorous writer, of Milwaukee, who served as governor from 1891 to 1895, and who has many elements of popularity. The breach between the rival factions of the Republicans had not been lessened last month at the time of our going to press. There had been no decision rendered by the State Supreme Court as to the question what faction had the right to use the Republican name and emblem on the official voting paper. Governor La Follette's campaign is said to have steadily developed strength and to have won adherents especially from the Populists and Bryan Democrats. It is claimed, on the other hand, that, in order to defeat La Follette, many of the "Stalwart," or conservative, Republicans will vote for Peck on the Democratic State ticket, while marking their ballots for Republican Presidential electors. The State is strongly claimed for Mr. Roosevelt.



THE NEW HOTEL ASTOR, AT BROADWAY AND FORTY-FOURTH STREET, NEW YORK CITY, OPENED LAST MONTH, WHERE JUDGE PARKER HAS HIS HEADQUARTERS.



HON. GEORGE W. PECK, OF WISCONSIN.
(Democratic nominee for governor.)

*Our Neighbors
North
and South.*

Our neighbors to the north are on the eve of a national election, in which the railroad interests will play an important part. The Canadians are also soon to receive their new governor-general, Lord Grey, a character sketch of whom will appear in this REVIEW next month. To the south, Mexico is prospering. Her continuance of the Diaz régime is evidence of a desire for peace and commercial progress. President Diaz was about to start on his travels around the world, during which he will spend some time in the United States; and the REVIEW OF REVIEWS will have something to say to its readers about these travels later on. On the Isthmus, and in the new republic of Panama, quiet was unbroken, save by the hum of activity on the canal strip. Minister Barrett has been useful in enhancing the republic's amicable relations with the United States, and apparently with the rest of the world, for the new little nation. The arbitrary action of the Venezuelan Government in seizing the asphalt lakes had caused some righteous indignation in the United States, but a satisfactory adjustment of the matter seemed probable in the near future. Several South American countries, notably Uruguay and Paraguay, were having serious revolts.

*Recent
History in
Europe.*

The session of the British Parliament which closed in August was not very fruitful in important legislation. The General Licensing Act, the campaign of Mr. Lloyd-George against the application of the Education Act to Wales, the ecclesiastical deadlock in Scotland over the "Free Church," and Mr. Chamberlain's preferential-tariff agitation were the topics of interest to the British electorate. Contrary to universal expectation, the Balfour ministry survives, but several by-elections have resulted in practically Liberal victories. Across the Channel, Premier Combes is continuing his campaign for the disestablishment of the French Church. Ambassadors have been withdrawn by Vatican and republic, and, while the Pope believes that his control over the French bishops is vital to the interests of the Church, and shows no disposition to yield, the republic, on the other hand, is evidently about ready to repeal the Concordat and bring about the absolute separation of Church and State. Holland has had her problems. In reopening the Dutch States-General, on September 20, Queen Wilhelmina pointed out the need for greater enterprise in competing with foreign industry, and declared that the finances of the nation needed strengthening. Germany has been enjoying a season of unusual prosperity, largely due, it is whispered in England, to the fact that German trade with the Orient has been permitted by Russia to thrive at the expense of English trade. Closer bonds have been drawn between the Russian and German empires by the recent commercial treaty. The Bismarck tradition has finally passed away from German political life with the death, on September 18, of Prince Herbert Bismarck, the eldest son of the Iron Chancellor.

*The Near
East.*

As usual, "there is trouble in the Balkans." Outrages by irresponsible troops continue, and on September 17 Turkish soldiers sacked and pillaged the port of Salonika. It was announced in August that the Turkish Government had practically agreed to the demands made by Secretary Hay for equal recognition with the subjects of European powers of American citizens in Turkish dominions, with special reference to schools under American auspices. It is interesting to note, in passing, that Murad V., the Sultan of Turkey, who was declared insane and deposed twenty-eight years ago to make room for his younger brother, the present Sultan, Abdul Hamid, died late in August. It was generally believed that the political programme of the Young Turkish party included the restoration of Murad V.



QUEEN HELENA OF ITALY AND HER TWO DAUGHTERS.

(The little Italian princesses are Yolanda, born June 1, 1901, and Mafalda, born November 19, 1902. A son, who is to be christened Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, was born September 15.)

Labor Troubles in Europe. While the industrial situation in this country is improving (Mr. Yarros' article on another page of this issue recounts the signs of improvement), last month saw mutterings of labor discontent in several widely separated sections of Europe. The economic and industrial conditions in Russia are graphically described by Dr. E. J. Dillon in his article in the REVIEW, this month (on page 449). The Czar had promised a great many industrial reforms in celebration of the christening of the young heir to the throne. His appointment of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky to succeed the late Minister von Plehve may be taken as an indication of his desire to mitigate the rigorous policy heretofore pursued in the department of the interior, but keen business distress, and in certain sections of the empire almost revolutionary labor conditions, grow worse in Russia. The great strike of the miners and dock laborers in southern France still keeps Marseilles in almost a state of siege, and just as Italy, like Russia, was preparing to celebrate the birth of an heir to the throne, a strike threatening to involve the entire country had broken out in Rome.

Italy's Industrial Crisis.

On September 16, it was announced that the Italian Socialists had decided on a general strike as a protest against a conflict between strikers and the police in Rome, in which two strikers were killed. The striking began at Milan, and several conflicts had occurred between the populace and the military, in which two of the gendarmes were killed. The day following, the reserves were called out by the ministry to reinforce the civil authorities. The heavy taxation, with its consequent burden on the poorer classes (perhaps nowhere so poor as in Italy), and the strongly organized, widespread labor organizations of the kingdom, which are practically identical with the Italian Socialist party,—these are facts which had made the friends of Italy fear that grave developments, perhaps even a revolution, were pending. The censorship on the news also indicated the gravity of the situation. The

rest of the world will not soon forget the Italian bread riots of 1898, when literal civil war was waged in Milan, Genoa, and other cities for several days. The King and Queen are very popular with Italians, but conditions of life are severe on a large proportion of the population, and the little prince, who was born on September 15 and is to be christened Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, arrived in troublous times for his country.

The Affair of the "Lena."

The reality of the war was brought suddenly and with startling effect to our very doors by the arrival, on September 11, of the Russian auxiliary cruiser *Lena*, thirty-one days out from Vladivostok, in the harbor of San Francisco, causing great excitement among the Japanese on the Pacific Coast, and considerable speculation throughout the country as to the purpose of her visit. Was she endeavoring to escape from Admiral Togo's victorious fleet, or had she been sent out to prey upon American-Japanese commerce in our own waters? The *Lena*, which was formerly the *Kherson* of the Russian volunteer fleet, is a steel English-built ship capable of steaming twenty-three

knots, which would permit her to overhaul any vessels of the Japanese line or of the American and British Pacific Mail lines. She is known as a transport, but carries twenty-three guns. Her captain had announced that her engines and boilers were in need of repairs, and asked permission to dock at San Francisco. Admiral Goodrich, of the Pacific squadron, had at once notified Washington, and by order of the President a thorough examination was made of the Russian vessel, which showed her to be unseaworthy. At the request of and by agreement with her captain, she had been taken into custody by the naval authorities at the Mare Island Navy Yard. There, by order of the President, she was completely disarmed, and her captain gave a written guarantee that she would not attempt to leave San Francisco until peace had been concluded. The officers and crew will probably remain in San Francisco until some understanding has been reached as to their disposal between the United States Government and both belligerents. Thus was our complete and impartial neutrality demonstrated.

*The Siege
of Port
Arthur.*

The defense, as well as the siege, of Port Arthur will doubtless pass into history as one of the most remarkable of modern times. For five months, up to the middle of September, General Stoessel, the Russian commander, had maintained himself with a dwindling force,—originally some 40,000, and now, according to the best reports, less than 12,000,—against from 80,000 to 100,000 Japanese, under one of the Mikado's greatest commanders, General Nogi, a sketch of whose gallant career appears in this number of the REVIEW. Up to September 20, all reports which reached the outside world told of the suffering and destitution of the garrison. It was said that while there were provisions for a month or more, these were of the "half-ration" order. More serious was the shortage of ammunition, reports agreeing that the Russian fire had not been as vigorous as formerly, and that the powder was of an inferior quality, as the shots did not carry so well. On August 27, during a violent thunderstorm, the Japanese made a fierce attack on several flank positions, but were repulsed. On September 1, they attacked again, and were likewise repulsed, but on September 12 one of the most important forts on the slope of Golden Hill was captured. On September 16, General Stoessel declares, he repulsed another Japanese attack. The city could now be reached from almost every direction by the Japanese guns. Fires have been frequent, and many buildings have been destroyed. People lived chiefly in

bomb-proof houses. Several Russian officials and a number of Chinese had been saying that early in September, when they escaped from the fortress, the Russians were prepared to blow up the ships and the town in case of a successful Japanese assault; also, that the besieging army was tunneling under the Russian forts, with the intention of blowing them up. The ferocity of the warfare at Port Arthur is described by Prince Radziwill, who recently succeeded in escaping, as almost beyond imagination. He declares that the white flag was spurned by both sides; that the wounded were abandoned, and that the dead of both sides lay unburied in the streets and trenches for weeks.

*Was the
Long Defense
Justified?*

The Japanese general staff has not concealed its belief that the fall of Port Arthur has been to a large extent dependent upon the departure of the Russian Baltic fleet for the far East. The menace from this now appears to be a negligible quantity, and, while the Japanese have not renounced the hope of carrying the fortress by direct assault, its capitulation will probably be brought about by starving out the garrison. Has the long defense of Port Arthur been justified? Captain Mahan, as quoted in one of our "Leading Articles" this month, believes that it has. It was a grave error, he holds, for Russia not to send the Baltic fleet to the far East some months ago, but that error has to a large extent been atoned for by Stoessel's stubborn defense of Port Arthur.

*The Baltic
Fleet Starts
and Stops.*

After the crushing defeat sustained by the Russian Port Arthur fleet on August 10, and the Vladivostok squadron four days later, the naval situation in the far East had remained uneventful until the actual departure of the much talked of Baltic fleet from Cronstadt. On September 11, the seven battleships and five cruisers of this armada, under command of Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky, began their long voyage with much pomp and ceremony. After a few hours' sail, however, orders were received to put into Reval, and at this writing (September 20) the fleet remains in this Baltic port. The ships of the Baltic fleet are mostly modern in type, the *Kniaz Suvaroff*, the *Alexander III.*, and the *Orel* being each of more than thirteen thousand tons, with heavy armament. The long delay in the departure of this fleet, and its return to port after sailings, have lent color to the suspicion that it is not as formidable as the Russian admiralty would have us believe. Supposing it to really sail for the Pacific, at least two months, and probably



Stereograph. Copyright, 1904. H. C. White Co.

FIELD MARSHAL MARQUIS OYAMA, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE JAPANESE ARMIES IN MANCHURIA; MARCHIONESS OYAMA, LADY HISAKO OYAMA, THEIR DAUGHTER, AND TWO SONS, IN THE GARDEN OF THEIR TOKIO HOME, JUST BEFORE THE DEPARTURE FOR THE FRONT.

three, would be consumed in reaching the scene of the war, and there can be little doubt of Admiral Togo's ability to defeat, if not destroy, it in the event of its reaching the vicinity of Port Arthur. The British Government, meanwhile, had directed its outposts, colonies, or protectorates on the road to refuse any assistance whatever to belligerent ships on their way to engage an enemy; and, in reply to a charge that the Russian admiral intended to coal and remain at Corunna, Spain, for a longer period than is permitted by international law, the Spanish Government had declared that it would not permit a belligerent act by either power within its jurisdiction.

Great Britain
Finds Red
Sea Raiders.

After much parleying, the Chinese authorities had effected the disarmament of the *Askold* and the *Grozovoi*, the two Russian ships which took refuge in the harbor of Shanghai after the Port Arthur battle of August 10, and it was reported that the *Diana*, which took refuge after this battle in the harbor of Saigon, French Indo-China, had been ordered by the Czar to disarm. The cruiser *Novik*, which escaped from Tsingtau on August 12 or 13, was intercepted by Admiral Kamimura and sunk off the coast of Sakhalin. An effective and rather

dramatic ending to the cruise of the Russian Red Sea raiders, the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, had added to the interest of the naval situation. The government at St. Petersburg, replying to the protest of the British Government that the interruptions to British commerce were continuing even after the agreement by the Russian Government that they should cease, announced that the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* had not received orders to desist, and that it was impossible to locate them. The British Government then offered to find the raiders and deliver the orders of the Russian Government. Several fast British cruisers were then supplied with cipher messages from the Russian admiralty to the commanders of the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* ordering them to desist from further captures, and these British vessels, after a week or more of unsuccessful search, finally located the Russian volunteer raiders off Zanzibar, Southeast Africa, and delivered to them the orders from their home government.

Russia
and
Contraband.

In the matter of the seizure of vessels declared to carry contraband of war, the interesting development had been the protest of the United States Government to Russia in the case of the steamer *Calchas*, captured by the Vladivostok squadron en route from Puget Sound to Japan, already noted in these pages. An appeal from the judgment of the Vladivostok prize court had been taken to the imperial court at St. Petersburg. The British and American contention is that freight seized cannot be deemed contraband from the mere fact that it was bound for the ports of a belligerent power, but that it is necessary to prove it to have been destined for the use of the army or navy of one of the belligerents. The Russian claim had been that "foodstuffs consigned to an enemy's port in sufficient quantity to create the presumption that it is intended for the use of the government's military or naval forces is *prima facie* contraband and sufficient to warrant holding it for the decision of a prize court." The Russian Government, however, on September 16, replied to the British note, agreeing to view foodstuffs and fuel as of

a conditionally contraband character, and stating that supplementary instructions to this effect had been issued to Russian naval commanders and prize courts. The sinking of the British vessel the *Knight Commander* was justifiable, Russia, however, claims. On September 19, the Russian Government replied to the American protest in the *Calchas* affair. The Russian note is substantially the same as that addressed to Great Britain, except that the Russian Government declines to accede to the American contention that coal, railway materials, and machinery should also be included among articles which are conditionally contraband.

Battles of Liao-Yang. The long-expected great battle of Liao-Yang has been fought, and

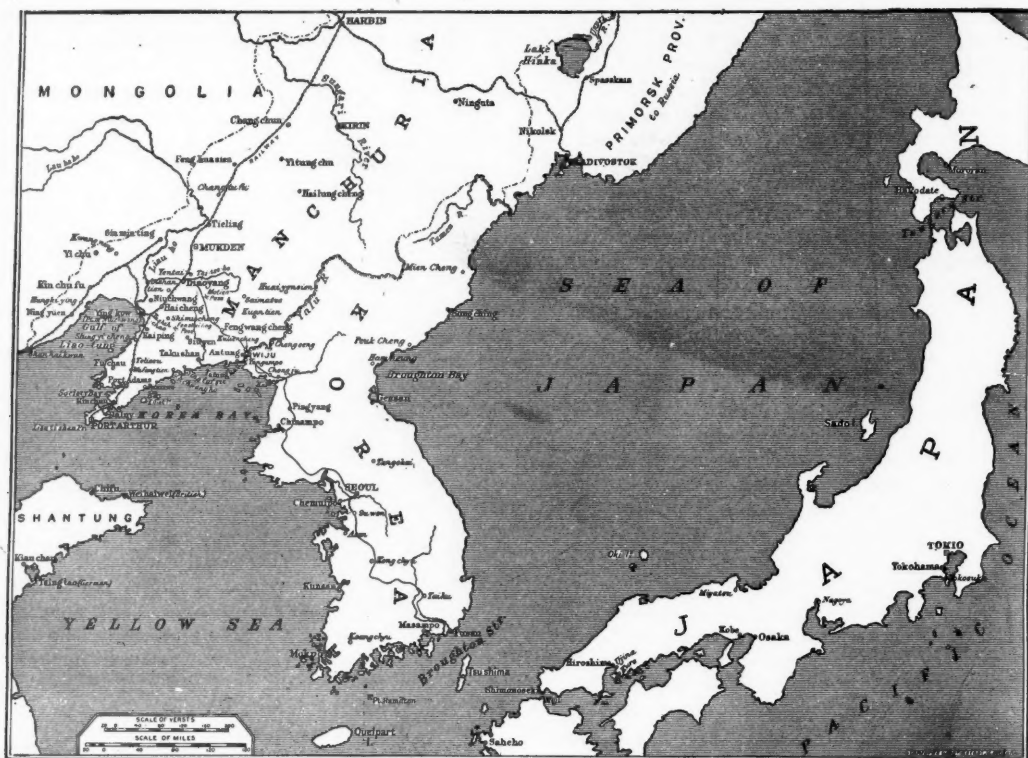
General Kuropatkin, the Russian commander-in-chief, on ground of his own choosing, has been conclusively defeated, although not routed, by the combined armies under Field Marshal Oyama. In nine days of perhaps the most desperate fighting of modern times, beginning August 23, the Japanese forced the Russian commander out of the fortified city of Liao-Yang and compelled him to retreat northward. By September 20, the entire Russian army had reached the sacred city of Mukden, the capital of Manchuria, and was still going slowly to the north, with the Japanese in pursuit. Several rear guard actions had taken place, with a probability that Mukden, forty miles north of Liao-Yang, would be the scene of the next battle.

How the Forces Were Drawn Up. The great battle, in which more than

four hundred thousand men were engaged,—a struggle which has been one of the greatest in the world's history,—was begun on August 24 by attacks on the Russian positions at An-Shan-Chan (by General Nodzu) and Anping (by General Kuroki). Up to the middle of August, the three Japanese armies had been conducting separate campaigns, Kuroki's being known as the first, Oku's as the second, and Nodzu's as the third, army. At Liao-Yang, these armies were united, under the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama, aggregating, according to the most generally accepted reports, 240,000 men, with from 800 to 900 guns. In this battle, Kuroki's army (160,000 men) became Marshal Oyama's right flank; General Nodzu's (50,000 men) the left flank, and General Oku's (30,000 men) the Japanese center. Opposed to these were approximately 200,000 to 210,000 Russians, under General Kuropatkin, who himself commanded the Russian center, with his right flank, facing General Nodzu, under Generals Stakelberg and Meyendorff suc-

cessively; and his left, facing General Oku, under the Cossack generals Mistchenko and Rennenkampf. The Russian forces were posted in strongly intrenched positions on the hills, in a semicircle around the city of Liao-Yang—about six miles from their center—with both wings resting on the Tai-tse River, which flows almost exactly east and west a little north of the town. Around this Russian army the Japanese formed an outer circle about two miles distant. For months the Russians had been fortifying and provisioning Liao-Yang, which had been General Kuropatkin's headquarters from the beginning of the war, and in which he had gathered vast quantities of military stores. Liao-Yang is an ancient walled city, which the most eminent of Russian engineers had been fortifying since May 1, surrounding it with line after line of trenches and pitfalls. Some twenty miles to the south and east of Liao-Yang, the Japanese, in their enveloping movements, had emerged from the mountains and entered the great plain of the Liao River. It seems clear that General Kuropatkin had deliberately chosen to fight on this plain, with the strong Liao-Yang fortifications at his back. On this plain, said the Russians, our superiority in cavalry will be effectively demonstrated.

Kuroki and Nodzu Attack. On August 24, General Kuroki attacked Anping with his left and center, reserving his right flank for another movement not at that time foreseen. At the same time, General Nodzu attacked the Russian right flank, forcing it to retire from Anping to Liao-Yang, closely followed by his and General Kuroki's forces. Meanwhile, the Japanese center, under General Oku, in a series of brilliant, desperate infantry charges, was pounding away at the Russian center. Here it was that the greatest loss of life took place. For two days, Oku hurled his splendid infantry against the Russian breastworks, fortified with every device that time and ingenuity could provide, but, despite their valor (more than one correspondent has characterized Oku's infantry as the best in the world), the dogged resistance of the Russians was too much for the bayonet charges of Oku's men, and this stage of the contest may fairly be said to have been favorable to Kuropatkin. So fierce were the Japanese attacks, however, that even behind their breastworks, the Russians are said to have suffered more severely than their assailants. Meanwhile, a tremendous artillery duel was in progress, the six hundred Russian guns replying to the seven hundred or eight hundred Japanese cannon incessantly for three days, ending August 29.



THE WAR AREA IN THE FAR EAST, SHOWING DISTANCES FROM JAPAN.

*Kuroki
Flanks the
Russians.*

On the last day of August, Kuroki's missing right flank effected a crossing by pontoon bridges over the Tai-tse River, at Sakankankwantun, and began to turn the Russian flank. It was the favorite Japanese plan,—pound your enemy in front, and while he is engaged there, creep around to the rear and cut his communications. It became necessary for Kuropatkin to meet this movement of Kuroki, while at the same time his center and right wings were still being engaged by Nodzu and Oku. With part of his forces to the north of the river, Kuropatkin attacked Kuroki with desperation, endeavoring to cut off that part of the Japanese flank which was on the north side of the Tai-tse and annihilate it before the other portion could join it. But by desperate fighting, during which Kuroki's fate was in the balance for three days, the Japanese general succeeded in getting his entire force across the river, and General Kuropatkin, instead of succeeding in his Napoleonic feat of crushing the Japanese army in detail, was forced to begin a general retreat to the north. On Sunday, September 4, the Japanese armies entered Liao-Yang.

*Terrible
Suffering
and Loss.*

After several enveloping movements on a large scale, in which the Russian rear guard, under General Stakelberg, narrowly escaped capture by the Japanese (General Orloff's detachment being nearly annihilated), the Russian forces, by September 8, had reached the Yen-Tai coal mines (one of Russia's only three sources of supply in Manchuria), on a branch of the Trans-Siberian, south of Mukden. Here they were again attacked by Kuroki and forced to retire still farther north. After an engagement at the mines, the fighting ceased, and the exhausted soldiers on both sides rested. In the ten days' fighting, ending September 3, the Russian losses were 2 generals, 22,000 men, 133 guns, and fortifications costing \$30,000,000. According to General Kuropatkin's official report of the fighting with Kuroki, 4,500 men were killed and 17,000 wounded. Marshal Oyama reported a loss of 17,000 in killed and wounded. But these figures evidently do not apply to all the ten days already considered, the losses of which British correspondents put at 30,000. General Kuropatkin declares that he saved his baggage and his baggage trains, and

succeeded in destroying all the stores in Liao-Yang before the city fell into the hands of the Japanese. Marshal Oyama, on the other hand, reports to Tokio that he secured vast and valuable stores in the city, including many thousand rifles and a great quantity of forage for horses. Between the evacuation by the Russians and the occupation by the Japanese, it is reported that bands of Russians, Chinese, and Japanese successively looted the town, and correspondents describe the city and surrounding country as one vast scene of carnage and desolation. More than twelve hundred guns had been roaring incessantly for three days, the cannonading being sixty shots a minute for more than forty-eight hours. The battle was made up of a great artillery duel, during which the Japanese shrapnel searched every square foot of the high Chinese grain in which the Russians were hiding; of desperate bayonet charges by Oku's men, which resulted in frightful Japanese losses, and which were really Russian triumphs; and in dashes of Cossack cavalry which repulsed the Japanese attackers many times.

*A Great
Victory
for Japan.*

As the great battle recedes into the proper perspective, it becomes more and more certain that, while the Japanese gained a decided victory, the Russians were not decisively defeated. It has been generally assumed that it was the purpose of Marshal Oyama to surround and annihilate General Kuropatkin. The latter, however, was able to escape with the bulk of his army. The Russian war office maintains that Kuropatkin's retreat is merely the "carrying out of a well-defined idea," and that the Russian general's escape was really a strategic defeat for the Japanese. The facts remain, however, that a stronghold which the Russians were a year in fortifying, and of whose impregnability they boasted, has been given up to the Japanese after one of the most desperately fought battles of history, and that the Russian commander-in-chief is now in disastrous, if not demoralized, retreat. Liao-Yang, the Russians and their sympathizers had hoped, would disclose some weakness,—a lack of staying qualities or some other inadequacy inherent in the military character of the Japanese,—that might reverse the decision based upon their preceding victories. A general engagement of the first class, however, has settled forever the question of the military science of the Japanese commanders and the courage and endurance of the Japanese soldier, measured even by European standards. If ever a war was run on thoroughly scientific, business-like principles, Japan is now waging such a war.

*A Masterly
Retreat.*

It has been said that in military history a great retreat ranks next to a great victory. General Kuropatkin has certainly made a masterly retreat. It may be said that, from the standpoint of actual fighting, he won the race. By his energy and determination, the Czar's commander-in-chief prevented the victors from turning defeat into a catastrophe, and saved his armies for another campaign. A trap was laid for him, but he was clever and strong enough to burst through or evade it. It is true he was not responsible for all the conditions under which he fought. He, however, allowed himself to be coerced into the occupation of Liao-Yang, when it is probable that he himself desired to leave southern and central Manchuria and concentrate at Harbin. He fortified Liao-Yang at his leisure, and made it so strong, with guns and stores, that it equalized for him the numerical superiority of the Japanese. It must have been his own fault if his position was not so well chosen and defended as to render him more than a match for his assailants, who, though they were somewhat more numerous, had the difficulty of attacking. Kuropatkin himself attributes his defeat chiefly to the failure of Major-General Orloff to carry out his orders in the Russian movement over the Tai-tse, which was meant to destroy Kuroki. Our character sketch on another page of this issue outlines Kuropatkin's really remarkable career, and shows him the well-rounded man that he is. The Russian journals, while deploring the defeat and admitting the Japanese ability to win on equal terms, attribute the reverse chiefly to interference with Kuropatkin's plans by Viceroy Alexieff. A number of these journals demand that entire military control be now given to Kuropatkin, and, early in September, it had been announced in St. Petersburg that Admiral Alexieff had been relieved of the military and naval command, and that thereafter he would be responsible only for the political and diplomatic representation in the far East, with headquarters at Harbin.

*What Will
Oyama
Do Now?*

The experts are telling us that the next battle will be at Harbin, three hundred miles to the north of Mukden; that the Japanese armies will then invade Siberia proper, if Kuropatkin is not meanwhile reinforced sufficiently to assume the offensive. This is, of course, mere speculation. In the opinion of a thoughtful Japanese of this city, however, who has good grounds for his views, Japan will not be tempted into an invasion of Siberia. She will most probably stop at Mukden, no matter what her success is, or, possibly, at Harbin. If

Japanese armies can fortify these strong posts and annihilate Kuropatkin's army, they will simply sit down and wait, meeting and destroying whatever armies may come over the Trans-Siberian as they appear. Meanwhile, the Japanese Government is likely to say to China: That is your property. Take it; fortify it; keep out the Russians. If the Chinese plead inability or lack of experience, Japan will say: Well, this is for you; we will do it if you will foot the bill. Under your direction and authority, our engineers will build fortifications, and our generals will hold these positions. This would be in line with Japan's unvarying recognition of China's authority in those portions of Manchuria which have now come under Japanese control. As at Newchwang, every city the Japanese forces take is turned over to Chinese administration, subject to only a minimum of military control.

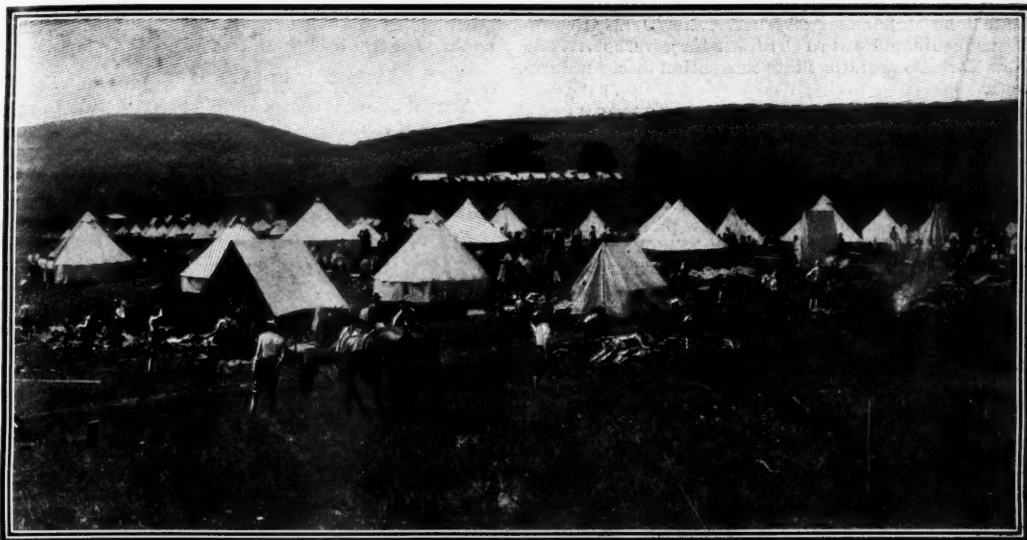
Will
There Be
Intervention?

It is pretty generally admitted, even in Russia, that the Japanese have won the present campaign, and as all the world,—with the possible exceptions of the belligerents themselves,—assumes that both armies will very shortly go into winter quarters, talk of peace is rife. Each government had announced that overtures must come from the other side—that each expects a long war and will fight to the bitter end. The Inter-Parliamentary Union, recently in session at St. Louis, was planning to request President Roosevelt to propose that the neutral powers which were represented at the Hague Peace Conference attempt, by joint intervention, to put an end to the war. Simultaneously, there had been a revival of the report that the German Emperor was planning to bring about a concerted interposition by neutrals. It may be confidently asserted that no offer of mediation or intervention will be made by the United States Government under any circumstances at present, nor at all, unless there should be some reasonable expectation that such offer would be acceptable to both nations involved. As for European intervention, it would seem to be an impossibility. France and England are both disqualified for taking the lead in such a movement by reason of their alliances with the contending powers. Germany is looked upon by Japan with strong suspicion as being pro-Russian, and the United States is very generally regarded in Russia as having interests in the far East which are substantially identical with those of Japan. Indeed, the Russian newspapers contain more articles directed against England and America than against the Japanese.

According to all the testimony that reaches us from the interior of Russia (as is strongly borne out by Dr. Dillon's thought-provoking article in this number of the REVIEW), the war is regarded by the Russian people as undesirable and disastrous. The general view, according to trustworthy correspondents, is that the war was desirable for Japan, but not so for Russia. Japan is calmly facing the possibility of a long war, and, as Baron Kaneko points out in his thoughtful article on another page of this issue, she may surprise us by her ability. This feeling is shown in the remarkable article in a recent number of the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, which we reproduce in another department. There seems to be, however, no feeling in favor of making terms until Russia is victorious.

British-
Tibetan
Treaty.

The British "mission" to Tibet has accomplished its labors, and by the middle of September it had been announced that the troops had begun the return march to India. It will be remembered that in March last the British-Indian government sent an expedition under Colonel Younghusband to compel the Tibetan authorities to carry out certain trade agreements made with British commissioners, and to ratify a definite treaty that would open up their country to Europeans. It was generally believed,—indeed, Viceroy Curzon had intimated it in a recent article in a British review,—that Russian influences had been blocking negotiations for years, with a view to establishing Russian ascendancy at Lassa. After an arduous march from the Indian frontier, with some fierce fighting by the way, on August 7 Colonel Younghusband finally reached the sacred mysterious capital, Lassa. Tubdan, the Dalai Lama, the spiritual head of the Tibetan Buddhists, fled to Mongolia. After a month's negotiations, during which the British succeeded in appointing a new head Lama friendly to Great Britain and in restoring much of the power of the Amban (the representative of Chinese suzerainty), a treaty was signed binding the Tibetans to grant trading facilities, to demolish all the forts between the Indian frontier and the town of Gyangtse, to repair all dangerous passes on routes of travel, and to pay an indemnity of \$2,400,000. In addition, the Tibetans agree not to dispose of any Tibetan territory without Great Britain's consent, nor to permit any foreign power to be concerned in the administration of the government. A force of British troops is to remain on Tibetan soil until the agreements are carried out.



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CAMP OF THE TWELFTH NEW YORK REGIMENT ON THE FIELD OF THE MANASSAS MANEUVERS, IN VIRGINIA, SEPTEMBER 5-10.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 22.—The Philippine bond issue is oversubscribed nine times; the accepted bid is \$101.410.

August 23.—Delaware Republicans (Addicks) nominate Henry C. Conrad for governor....Texas Republicans nominate J. C. Lowden for governor.

August 25.—Utah Republicans nominate John C. Cutler for governor.

August 30.—The South Carolina Democratic primaries result in the renomination of Gov. D. C. Heyward....Minnesota Democrats nominate John A. Johnson for governor.

September 1.—Wisconsin Democrats nominate ex-Gov. George W. Peck for governor....Governor Odell appoints Justice Edgar M. Cullen chief judge of the New York Court of Appeals, to succeed Judge Parker, resigned.

September 3.—Connecticut Populists nominate Judge Joseph Sheldon for governor.

September 5.—Hawaiian Republicans nominate Jonah K. Kalanianaʻole for Delegate to Congress....Jefferson Davis (Dem.) is reelected governor of Arkansas.

September 6.—Republicans carry the Vermont election by a plurality of 31,000....Delaware Democrats nominate Caleb S. Pennewell for governor.

September 7.—Connecticut Democrats nominate A. Heaton Robertson for governor....New Hampshire Democrats nominate Henry F. Hollis for governor.

September 8.—Wyoming Democrats nominate ex-Gov. John E. Osborne for governor....Montana Repub-

licans nominate William Lindsay for governor....Utah Democrats nominate James H. Moyle for governor.

September 12.—Maine Republicans carry the State and Congressional elections by pluralities of over 30,000

.... President Roosevelt's letter of acceptance of the Republican nomination is made public.

September 14.—Connecticut Republicans nominate Henry Roberts for governor....Colorado Republicans renominate Gov. James H. Peabody.

September 15.—Montana Democrats renominate Gov. Joseph K. Toole.... New Jersey Democrats nominate Charles C. Black for governor.... New



PRINCE JOHN OBOLENSKY.

(General Bobrikoff's successor as governor of Finland.)

York Republicans nominate Frank W. Higgins for governor.

September 20.—New Hampshire Republicans nom-

inate John McLane for governor....New Jersey Republicans nominate Edward C. Stokes for governor....The New York Democratic State convention meets at Saratoga.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 23.—A manifesto of the Russian Emperor grants measures of relief to the people of Finland and accords amnesty for all political offenses except those in which murder has been committed....The New South Wales Parliament opens....The new premier of Western Australia outlines his policy. Sir W. Whiteway announces his return to public life in Newfoundland.

September 3.—The war minister of Uruguay reports a decisive victory by the government troops over General Saraiva.

September 7.—It is announced that Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky has been selected to succeed the late M. Plehve as Russian minister of the interior....Paraguayan rebels capture Villa Encarnacion.

September 11.—Many persons are injured and houses and shops pillaged in Russian anti-Jewish riots....A defeat of the government troops is reported from Uruguay.

September 13.—President Palma sets October 1 for the beginning of the payment of one-half of the claims of the Cuban revolutionary forces.

September 14.—Turkish militia battalions are called out to suppress another Albanian outbreak....Anarchist plots are discovered in Barcelona and Madrid, Spain.

September 17.—Premier Combes opposes a proposition to submit the question of separation of Church and State in France to popular vote.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 22.—The status of American Jews in Russia is set forth in the statements made public of Secretary Hay's instructions to Ambassador McCormick.

August 23.—The Tibetans release two Sikkimese British subjects imprisoned as spies....Sir Francis Burpee, British ambassador at Rome, is appointed to succeed Sir Edmund Monson as ambassador to France.

August 24.—The German frontier police arrest many Russians attempting to leave their country to avoid military service....Father Ambrose Agius is chosen Apostolic Delegate to the Philippines.

September 2.—United States Minister Barrett reports to his government the prospect of an early settlement of differences with the republic of Panama.

September 16.—Russia grants the contentions of the United States and Great Britain regarding the conditional contraband character of foodstuffs and fuel.

September 19.—All the powers except Russia instruct their ministers at Belgrade to attend the coronation of King Peter.

September 20.—Russia, it is announced, protests against the Anglo-Tibetan treaty.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

August 22.—The consuls at Shanghai decide to refer the case of the Russian cruisers to the Peking government....The British steamer *Comedian* is stopped eighty miles from East London, South Africa, by the Russian cruiser *Smolensk*, and after examination of her papers is allowed to proceed.

August 23.—The Taotai requests the British consul-general to require the Shanghai Dock Company to cease work on the *Askold*; Sir Pelham Warren notifies the Russian consul that he officially demands the disarmament of both the *Askold* and *Grozovoi*....The finding of the naval court on the sinking of the *Hipsang* is delivered; it considers that the captain acted correctly, and that his ship was sunk without just cause or reason....The Japanese warships *Nitschin* and *Kasuga* steam into Port Arthur and silence the Lao-lui-chui forts.

August 24.—The Czar orders the disarmament of the Russian warships at Shanghai; the flags of both vessels are accordingly lowered.

August 25.—Two Russian destroyers come on mines at the entrance of Port Arthur; one of them is sunk....The liner *Asia*, bound for Calcutta, reports being detained for two hours by the Russian steamer *Ural* off Cape St. Vincent and her papers and cargo examined.

August 24-September 2.—The great battle of Liao-Yang is fought between the Russian army under General Kuropatkin and the three Japanese armies under

the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama; the battle begins with attacks on the Russian positions at An-Shan-Chan by General Nodzu, and at Anping by Kuroki, General Oku in the meantime attacking the Russian center; and on August 31 Kuroki's right flank crosses the Tai-tse River, and by turning General Kuropatkin's flank, forces a general Russian retreat; it is estimated that in the ten days' fighting more than 200,000 Russians and 240,000 Japanese are engaged.

September 4.—The Japanese armies enter Liao-Yang, the Russians retreating to Mukden.

September 8.—General Kuropatkin reports the arrival of his entire army at Mukden without the loss of a gun.

September 11.—Russia's Baltic fleet sails from Cronstadt for the far East....The Russian cruiser *Lena* arrives at San Francisco for repairs.

September 15.—The Japanese issue a proclamation to



GENERAL BARON MEYENDORFF.

(Commanding the First Russian Army Corps, the rear guard after Liao-Yang.)



LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SAKHAROFF.

(General Kuropatkin's chief of staff.)



THE LATE PRINCE HERBERT BISMARCK.

the Russian troops at Port Arthur demanding their surrender....The Japanese proclaim a protectorate over Kamchatka.....The Japanese begin a severe bombardment of Port Arthur.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 24.—The meeting of the British Association at Cambridge comes to an end....The Czarewitch is christened in the church of the Peterhof Palace.

August 25.—Writs are issued for the arrest of twenty-eight citizens of Cripple Creek, Colo., for their participation in the deporting of union men and sympathizers.

August 27.—The United States battleship *Louisi-ana* is launched at the Newport News shipyard.

August 29.—Fire destroys the city of Binang, in the Philippines, causing the loss of one hundred lives.

August 30.—The settlement of the ocean rate war is announced.

September 5.—The striking butchers in and around New York City apply to be taken back at the packing-houses on the open-shop plan.

September 6.—The threatened strike on the New York elevated railway lines is averted by an agreement by which the subway motormen are to receive \$3.50 for ten hours' work.

September 7.—International Geographic Congress is opened at Washington (see page 467)....The military maneuvers on the battlefield of Manassas, Virginia, are begun.

September 8.—The National Executive Board of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen orders an end of the great beef strike at Chicago.

September 14.—The American Bankers' Association meets in New York City (see page 427).

OBITUARY.

August 21.—Prof. George Pirie, of the University of Aberdeen, 61....Judge B. H. Bill, of Rockville, Conn., 75.

August 22.—John Lowber Welsh, of Philadelphia, 62....N. N. Whitney, founder of the *Pacific Commercial Advertiser*, Honolulu, 80....Miss Kate Chopin, writer of Creole stories.

August 23.—Dr. Anton Drasche, of the Austrian Sanitary Council, 77.

August 24.—Sir Henry Stephenson, a well-known philanthropist of Sheffield, England, 77.

August 25.—Dr. William Rice Pryor, a well-known New York surgeon and gynecologist, 46....William Weightman, the wealthiest resident of Philadelphia, 91.

August 26.—Prof. Charles Woodruff Shields, of Princeton University, 79....Robert Parrott, discoverer of the famous copper mine which bears his name at Butte, Mont., 75.

August 27.—The Very Rev. S. Reynolds Hole, Dean of Rochester, 85.

August 29.—Vice-Admiral W. R. Rolland, R.N. (retired), 87....Amurath V., former Sultan of Turkey (deposed in 1876).

August 30.—Charles B. Spahr, a well-known New York journalist (disappeared from a Channel steamer off the coast of England), 44....Gen. Milo S. Hascall, a veteran of the Civil War....Maurice Phillips, for many years connected with the *New York Home Journal*, 70.

August 31.—Dr. Thomas Herran, former Colombian minister to the United States, 61.

September 3.—Charles Finney Clark, president of the Bradstreet Company, 68....Clark Caryl Haskins, electrical inventor and writer, 77.

September 4.—Daniel Magone, formerly collector of the port of New York, 75....Col. William Augustine, said to have been the oldest surviving graduate of West Point, and veteran of three wars, 89.

September 5.—James Archer, a well-known British portrait painter, 82.

September 8.—Rev. George C. Lorimer, D.D., of New York City, 66.

September 9.—Judge Kirk Hawes, of Chicago, 65.

September 11.—Leo Stern, the violincellist....James Lowther, M.P., 64....Francis White, for many years identified with the financial, educational, and philanthropical institutions of Baltimore, 80.

September 18.—Prince Herbert Bismarck, 55....Prof. Daniel Willard Fiske, formerly of Cornell University, 73....Emil Thomas, formerly one of the best-known comedians on the German stage, 65....Gen. Russell Hastings, 69.

September 20.—Ex-Justice William L. Learned, of the New York Supreme Court, 83.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE CAMPAIGN.



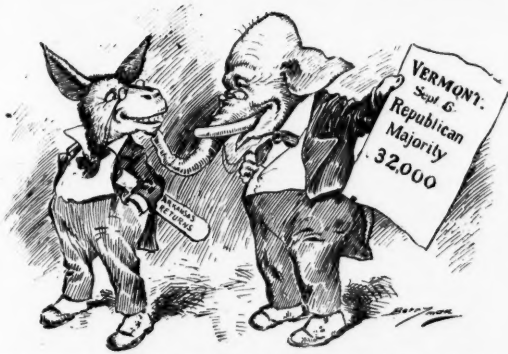
HE'D SINK EITHER OF THEM.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).
(Neither party, this year, wishes to run the risk of associating itself with the trusts.)



THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY: "I hope they don't arbitrate before election."—From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



CHAIRMEN CORTELYOU AND TAGGART AFTER THE
LABOR VOTE.
From the *Post* (Washington).



THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT SHOWING THE NEWS TO THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY.—From the Post (Washington).



"WHAT IS ONE MAN'S MEAT IS ANOTHER MAN'S POISON."

(The cartoonist wishes to convey the idea that Roosevelt wants to talk and that Parker is quite happy to be silent.)—From the News (Baltimore).



INDORSED BY THE MAINE FARMERS.
From the Evening Telegraph (Philadelphia).

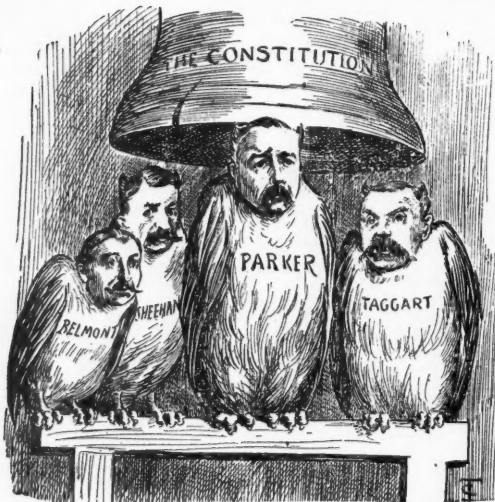


PARKER'S POLITICAL SCHOOL NO. 1.

"And then, the whining schoolboy, with his satchel, and shining morning face, creeping, like a snail, unwillingly to school."—From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



POPULIST CANDIDATE WATSON CHALLENGING THE OTHER PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES TO TALK.—From the Post (Washington).



A FALSE ALARM.

CHORUS OF DEMOCRATIC OWLS: "Too-whit, too-whoo! Constitution in danger! Too-whit, too-wh-o-o-o-o!"
From the *Globe* (New York).



MESSEURS. BELMONT, CLEVELAND, AND TAGGART: "Shall we invite Bryan to speak?"—From the *Mail* (New York).



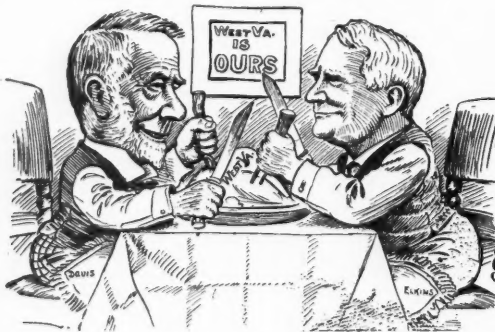
CAMPAIGN FUNDS COMING EASY.

"We are not refusing any offers."—Chairman Cortelyou.
From the *American* (New York).



CLEARING THE WAY TO VICTORY.

DAVID B. HILL (to Mr. Parker): "Ta-ta, Alton!"—From the *News* (Baltimore).



ALL IN THE FAMILY.

(Candidate Davis and his Republican son-in-law, Senator Elkins, are able to take a cheerful view.)
From the *Post* (Washington).



POPULIST CANDIDATE WATSON COAXING THE CHICKENS FROM THE DEMOCRATIC BARNYARD.
From the *Post* (Washington).



GOVERNOR ODELL: "Platt thinks just the same as I do. Don't you, Senator?"—From the *American* (New York).



GOVERNOR ODELL, OF NEW YORK.
From the *Herald* (New York).



SENATOR PLATT, OF NEW YORK.
From the *Herald* (New York).



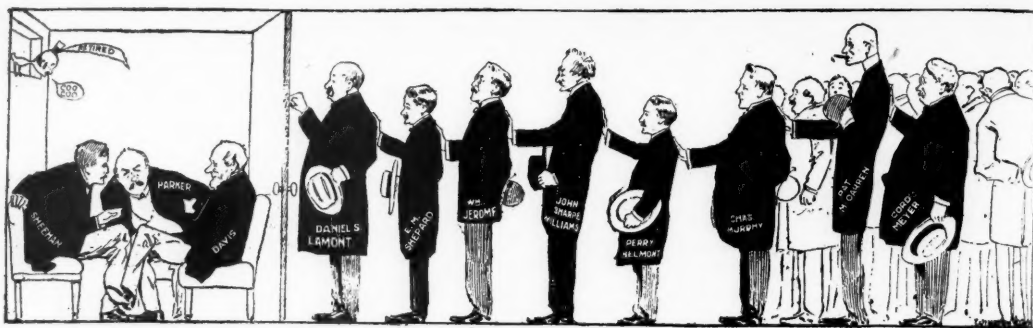
CÆSAR PLATT TO BRUTUS ODELL: "Et tu, Brute?"
"This was the most unkind cut of all;
For when the noble Cæsar saw him stab,
Ingratitude, more strong than traitors' arms,
Quite vanquish'd him: then burst his mighty heart;
And, in his mantle muffling up his face,
Even at the base of Pompey's statue,
Which all the while ran blood, great Cæsar fell."

From the *World* (New York).



PATCHING UP A PLATFORM.

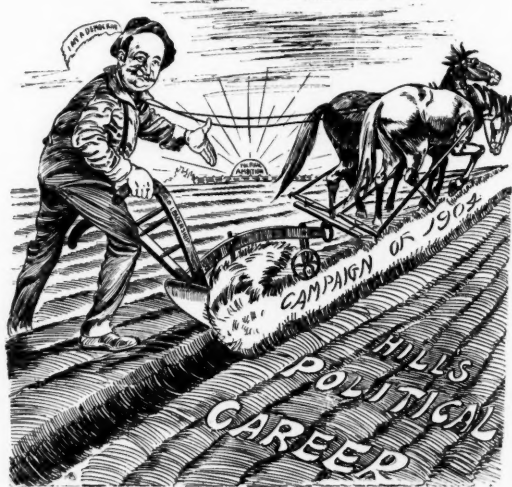
Judge Parker will use his letter of acceptance to reënforce his famous Sheehan telegram over the hole in the Democratic platform—where the money plank is missing.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



SOME OF THE PILGRIMS TO THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC MECCA IN THE NEW HOTEL ASTOR, NEW YORK.



PARKER AND HILL AS SINDBAD AND THE OLD MAN OF THE SEA.—From the World (New York).



DAVID B. HILL: "This is my last furrow!"
From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).



MESSRS. MURPHY, M'CARREN, AND HILL SINGING A SARATOGA SERENADE TO GOVERNOR ODELL.
From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).



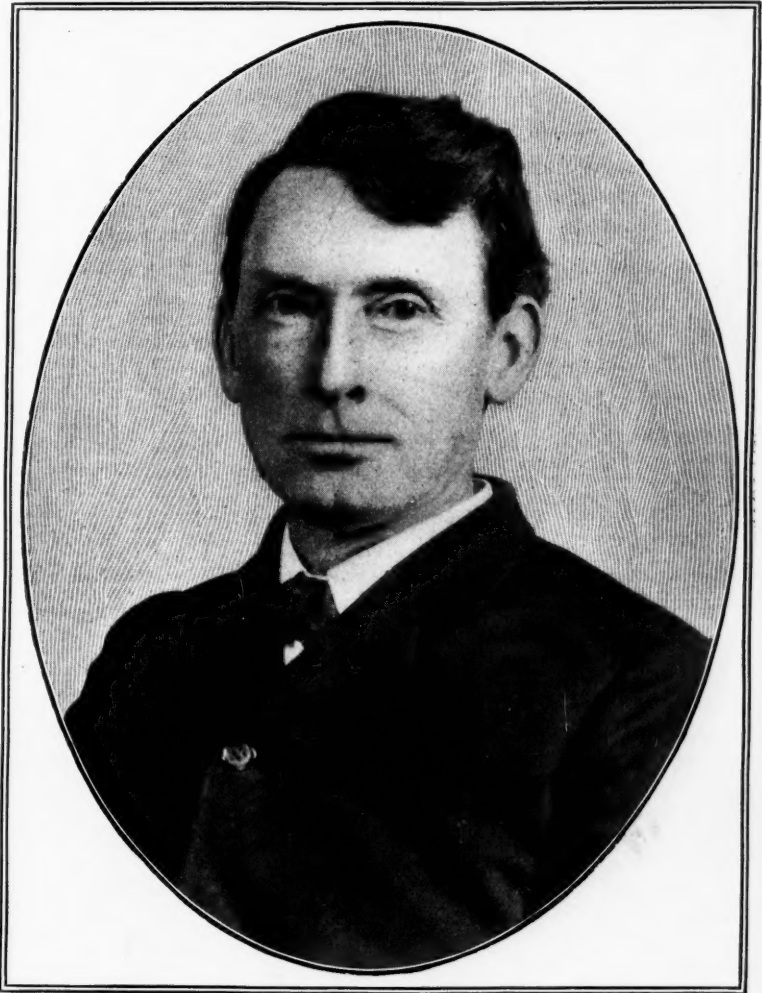
MISS DEMOCRACY (to David B. Hill): "That awful man I can't lose him!"—From the Mail (New York).

THOMAS E. WATSON,—POPULIST CANDIDATE.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

TOM WATSON is a great man. The Populist party is not strong enough to elect him President of the United States, but he is one of the greatest Americans of his day, just the same. He is not a great man because the Populists have nominated him for President. He is a great man in his own right and way and genius, just as Theodore Roosevelt was a great man before the Republican party and fate put him in the White House. True greatness is not adventitious; it does not come from without; if it is anywhere, it is in the man himself,—in his works, his genius, his achievements.

And Tom Watson is surely a genius. He has certainly achieved. He is so much of a genius, and has achieved to such good purpose, that his name and fame are known in parts of the world where the Populist party of America was never heard of. Among his own countrymen, he is known to and admired by millions who must confess to the most narrow prejudice against the Populist party and the most elaborate ignorance as to what the Populist party really is and stands for. I have no prejudice against the Populists; as a non-partisan newspaper writer, I cannot afford the luxury of prejudices against any political party. To my mind, the Populists are admirable in their earnestness and sincerity, whatever may be said about their practicality. But just now they are chiefly admirable because



HON. THOMAS E. WATSON, OF GEORGIA.

they have made Tom Watson their standard-bearer.

Who can withhold admiration from a man who has fought his way through all sorts of obstacles to success—who has run the race heavily handicapped from the first, and won it? That is what Tom Watson has done. Let us have a rapid glance at the story of his life. Perhaps at the very outset we hit upon the secret of



MRS. THOMAS E. WATSON.

his success,—it was in the blood, good Quaker blood, from his ancestors who migrated from North Carolina and established a colony on forty thousand acres of land between the Savannah and the Ogeechee rivers, in Georgia, a century and a half ago. Among these Quakers were Watson's ancestors on both sides—the Watsons and the Maddoxes. They were landowners from the first; and they must have been fighting Quakers, too, for they took part in political and military affairs as occasion demanded, and they adopted one of the very first resolutions against British oppression passed by a public meeting in the Colonial days. A Thomas Watson was one of the signers. Members of the family served in the Revolution. The father and uncles of the present Thomas Watson fought in the Confederate army.

AS COUNTRY SCHOOLMASTER.

The Civil War ruined the Watsons, as it did pretty nearly every one in the South. They lost all of their slaves and most of their land. The remnant of the latter which they saved out of the

wreck went by sheriff's sale in the panic of 1873, and the family were driven from their old plantation home, where they had lived for many generations. Tom Watson was then in a Baptist school where no tuition was charged. He had been admitted as "poor and deserving," under the Jesse Mercer endowment,—a frail, freckled, red-haired, dreamy-eyed lad of seventeen. But he had to pay board, and when his people could no longer do even that much,—for the wolf was at their door,—he left the college and went out into the field to work. In a few months he got a chance to teach school,—a rural school, rejoicing in the title of "Academy." I shall here quote from the contract which young Watson signed with the trustees,—a quaint document, written, we may be sure, by one of the custodians of the district's educational interests :

Rules adopted by the trustees of the Centrial Warrian District Accadamy to be enforced by Thos. E. Watson as teacher.

Rule 1st—There shall be no student admitted into this school that does not come under theas obligations.

Rule 2d—All abusive language such as cursing and swearing is actually forbidden.

Rule 3d—There shall no student be alowed to carry conseald weppons.

Rule 4th—There shall be no climbing of fences, resling or throwing rocks at each other alowed.

Rule 5th—No student is alowed to fight in school or on there way too or from school, nor no news to be cariade too or from school.

Rules for the government of Teacher Watson were set down as follows :

To keep a good and holsome disciplin at all times.

To take in school at least by one $\frac{1}{2}$ hours by sun in the morning, to alow as recess in the forenoon at least 15 minuts, at noon one hour, and 15 minuts recess in the afternoon, and to turn out in the afternoon at least one hour by the sun.

The said Teacher shall not be alowed to correct no student in any way only by a switch the skin not to be cut and not to be abused otherwise.

To think that "the said Teacher" of this "Centrial Accadamy" should afterward win fame as the writer of "The Story of France!"

ADMITTED TO THE BAR.

For two years young Watson taught the school and did his best to live up to the rules laid down by the exacting trustees. But the school was not enough to engross his energies. He wanted to read law; the trouble was, he had no law book, and not enough money to buy one. He was boarding with a farmer, James Thompson, and Thompson lent him money to buy Blackstone. Evenings, young Watson studied his Blackstone by the light of Thompson's pine-knot blaze. Determined to be a lawyer, he became a

lawyer; was admitted to the bar at nineteen; and in 1876, when twenty years old, returned to his old home, the village of Thomson, and hung out his sign. Mr. Watson once confessed to me that at that time he had scarcely a decent change of clothing. He had been working as a farm-hand,—torture for one of such slight physique,—between school terms. At this juncture came a lift from a friend—"the kindness which really gave me a chance for life," as Mr. Watson says. One of his former schoolteachers, Robert H. Pearce, agreed to trust him for a year's board while the stripling lawyer was "getting on his feet."

PROFESSIONAL SUCCESS.

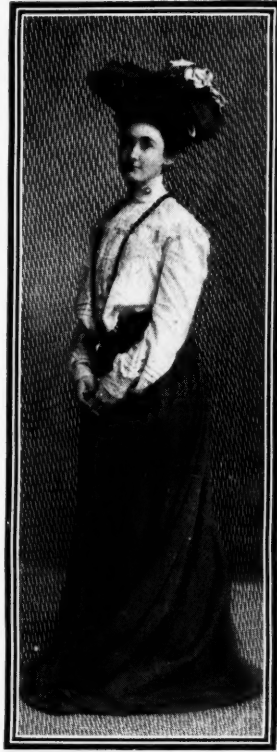
Somewhat or other, he obtained business. The first twenty dollars he earned he exchanged for a gold piece and sent it to his mother. The first year, his earnings were \$212 gross, and he paid his board bill out of that. The second year, he did better, and bought back, largely on credit, one of the old homes of his family and installed therein his father and mother and younger sisters and brothers. The young lawyer lived with them; and every morning he took his dinner in a bucket and walked three miles to his law office, and walked back again to the farm in the evening. This year, his income was \$474. The third year, he again doubled his income, and from now on his business increased, till he was soon earning \$12,000 a year, and was able to buy back several thousand acres of the lands which had formerly belonged to his family. Is not this a sweet story—this story of struggle, sacrifice, and success?

IN POLITICS—FROM DEMOCRACY TO POPULISM.

In 1880, there was a hot fight in a Democratic State convention in Georgia. At the climax, a little, pale-faced, red-haired chap made a speech on the losing side. First, the audience was hostile; then it went wild with delight over the little fellow's nerve and eloquence. Every one asked, "Who is he?" "Tom Watson, of MacDuffie County," was the answer. Such was the *début* on the political stage of this poet, lawyer, orator, historian, novelist, nominee for President. Strange that a Geor-



MR. J. DURHAM WATSON.
(Mr. Watson's son.)



MISS AGNES WATSON.
(Mr. Watson's daughter.)

gia country lawyer should send to the press a history of France and a life of Napoleon that astonished and captivated the world. But if it's in the man, it will come out; and you never can tell what sort of man the divine fire burns within. Wallace Putnam Reed knew Watson in those days,—had been drawn to him by the future historian's poems on "Josephine" and "Napoleon,"—and has written of him: "Twenty-five years ago, the poet's slight figure, flashing eyes, and feverish enthusiasm suggested a soul of flame in a body of gauze." He looked like a man who would 'live in a blaze and in a blaze expire.'

But it is easy to see genius in a man after he himself has convinced the world that it is there.

We need not dwell long on Mr. Watson's political career. In 1882, a Democratic member of the Legislature; in 1888, a Cleveland elector and a Cleveland stumper; in 1889, leader of a fight against the jute bagging trust, which so pleased the farmers that they insisted, the next year, on electing him to Congress, and after election espousing the principles adopted by the Farmers' Alliance at Indianapolis, greatly to the disgust of his Democratic friends; defeated,— "counted out by the Democrats," he claimed,— for reelection in 1892 and 1894, and denied his seat by the House on contest; in 1896, reluctantly accepting the Vice-Presidential nomination on the Bryan ticket, and afterward claiming that the Democratic managers did not deal fairly with their Populist allies; and in 1904, accepting an unsought nomination as the Populist candidate for President, reluctantly yielding, he says, because the Democracy had completely turned its back upon its former friends and sur-

rendered to Wall Street, and with both of the old parties standing substantially for the same thing, it was high time to resurrect the Populist party and make an effort to save the country.

It will not do to omit mention of the fact that this many-sided man belongs also to the noble profession of journalism. For years he published, at Atlanta, *The People's Party Paper*, and this journal had a tremendous circulation among the men and women of the Populist faith. In its columns, week after week, Watson poured out his soul, championed the cause of the masses against the classes, wrote with the power and the earnestness which mark all his work, and soon became a force at hundreds of thousands of humble firesides. This paper, doubtless, did more than his service in Congress or his activities in the political field to make him the chosen leader of the Populist host.

Of two of his achievements during his one term in Congress Mr. Watson is justly proud. He led the debate on the bill requiring railroads to put automatic couplers on their freight cars within five years, and the bill was passed.

On February 17, 1893, he introduced in the House and secured the passage of an amendment providing ten thousand dollars for an experiment in the delivery of mail outside the cities, towns, and villages. The members of the farmer party naturally lay great stress upon their claim that their candidate is the father of rural free delivery in the United States.



HICKORY HILL, MR. WATSON'S HOME, AT THOMSON, GEORGIA.

ROOSEVELT AND WATSON,—SOME INTERESTING CORRESPONDENCE.

In those days there was a prevalent impression that Mr. Watson belonged to the "poor white trash" class of the South—that he was a "Georgia Cracker"—an impression which the Southern Democrats were not unwilling to spread after Watson left their party. Incidentally, this belief brought on a most interesting discussion between Theodore Roosevelt and Mr. Watson. In an article on the Vice-Presidency published in the *AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS* in September, 1896, Mr. Roosevelt spoke of Mr. Watson as one "whose enemies call him a Georgia Cracker," and characterized him as a typical Populist of the period.

As a result of the publication of this article, the Georgian addressed a letter to Mr. Roosevelt which the latter printed in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* of the following January, and characterized it as "a very manly and very courteous letter." Some of Mr. Watson's paragraphs are worthy of quotation here.

You merely obey a law of your nature which puts you into mortal combat with what you think is wrong. You fight because your own sense of self-respect and self-loyalty compels you to fight. Is not this so? If in Georgia and throughout the South we have conditions as intolerable as those which surround you in New York, can you not realize why I make war upon them? . . .

If you could spend an evening with me among my books and amid my family, I feel quite sure you would not again class me with those who make war upon the "decencies and elegancies of civilized life." And if you could attend one of my great political meetings in Georgia, and see the good men and good women who believe in Populism, you would not continue to class them with those who vote for candidates upon the "no undershirt" platform.

The "Cracker" of the South is simply the man who did not buy slaves to do his work. He did it all himself—like a man. Some of our best generals in war, and magistrates in peace, have come from the "Cracker" class. As a matter of fact, however, my own people, from my father back to Revolutionary times, were slave-owners and landowners.

Mr. Roosevelt disclaimed any intention to characterize Mr. Watson offensively, and added :

I was in Washington when Mr. Watson was in Congress, and I know how highly he was esteemed personally by his colleagues. Moreover, I sympathize as little as Mr. Watson with denunciation of the "Cracker," and I may mention that one of my forefathers was the first Revolutionary governor of Georgia at the time that Mr. Watson's ancestors sat in the first Revolutionary legislature of the State. Mr. Watson himself embodies not a few of the very attributes the lack of which we feel so keenly in many of our public men. He is honest, he is earnest, he is brave, he is disinterested. For many of the wrongs which he wishes to remedy, I, too, believe that a remedy can be found, and for this purpose I would gladly strike hands with him. All this makes it a matter of the keenest regret that he should advocate certain remedies that we deem even worse than the wrongs complained of.

Surely this is a most interesting correspondence between two literary politicians who are now confronting each other as rival candidates for the Presidency.

MR. WATSON AS AN HISTORIAN.

After the campaign of 1896, Mr. Watson abandoned politics and turned his attention to the work of his life, to the dream of his youth,—the writing of history. His "Story of France" astonished the world. Foreign critics praised it, and marveled that such a work could come from the brain of a backwoods lawyer in an American State of which few of them had ever heard. But Watson has a genius for history; and genius will have its way. His college professor says that he was "a history hog," literally devouring every book in the library, reading night and day. Mr. Watson himself says that his "Story of France" grew out of some sketches which he wrote for his newspaper, the purpose being to show how class legislation, or the greed of the few, had wrecked the French monarchy and caused the revolution, "just as I believe they will wreck our own republic unless checked by measures of peaceful reform." Foreign critics found Watson's style "not the most brilliant or polished," but they gladly recognized his power, his vividness. He is ever the champion of the under-dog; he sees through the eyes and feels through the heart of the proletariat. To write history, he does not go into the palace and the castle and chronicle the dynastic and military changes of those who make pawns and victims of the people in the valleys round about. Instead, he goes down among the tillers of the soil, and, standing beside them, looks up at the palace and castle, and searchingly inquires what have they in the seats of the mighty done for humanity. To him, "Louis the Grand," with his fifteen thousand bedizened idlers, eating up one-tenth of the

national revenues, laying all the burden upon the bent back of the peasant, was the precursor of the revolution. Napoleon was incomparable and irresistible as long as he battled for democracy, for the modern idea of the people against feudalism (Napoleon himself said, at St. Helena, in his melancholy retrospection and self-justification, "Friends and foes must confess that of these principles I am the chief soldier, the grand representative"), but defeat and ruin came when he attempted to found a dynasty leagued with European monarchies and aristocracies. According to Mr. Watson, had Bonaparte remained true to the Populist faith, there would have been no St. Helena.

Mr. Watson never lifts his feet from his rock of principle. In "The Life and Times of Thomas Jefferson," his underlying text is a desire to show how a government of the whole people, instead of a government of the privileged few, must be formed. He does more in his "Jefferson,"—he brings out vividly that the American Revolution was of the South as well as of the North, that it was not simply a New England affair. He does this justly to both sections. And, speaking of North and South, it may be news to the readers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* that the poet, the orator, the lawyer, the politician, the lecturer, the historian, the Presidential candidate, has now turned novelist. Just coming from the press is his "Bethany: A Story of the Old South." It is a story of the Civil War, and it will be found most fascinating. Many of its incidents and tales are from real life, for the author's people were in the war, and were by the war ruined. Here again is an underlying purpose,—justice to both North and South, abatement of sectionalism.

A PEN PICTURE OF THE POPULIST LEADER.

Tom Watson is physically a mere mite of a man. He is small of frame, and the flesh upon him is meager. He is painfully lean and hungry-looking, with a cadaverous, raw-boned face, and eyes which shine at you. His hair is long, straight, a yellowish red. He has a strong jaw,—the jaw of a fighter. He has little sense of humor,—he is all earnestness, all sincerity. His voice rasps, but the fires of fervency and purposefulness, and his command of language, make him a debater and speaker of power and charm. He loves music, plays the fiddle (he would scorn to call it a violin), and plays it well. He is shy of men, prefers books to bipeds, has little social tact, yet is beloved by all who really get to know him. He has a family, a fortune, owns half of the country he lives in, and works, works, works.

CHEMISTRY AS A MODERN INDUSTRIAL FACTOR.

BY CHARLES BASKERVILLE, PH.D., F.C.S.

(Professor of chemistry, College of the City of New York.)

THE Society of Chemical Industry, with its home in England, met this year in the United States, under the presidency of Sir William Ramsay, who is known for his brilliant researches in the field of pure chemistry. The medal of this society, given every two years for the most valuable contribution to applied chemistry, was presented to a distinguished American teacher, President Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University, who has no direct association with the industrial applications of chemistry. An American manufacturer was selected as the new presiding officer.

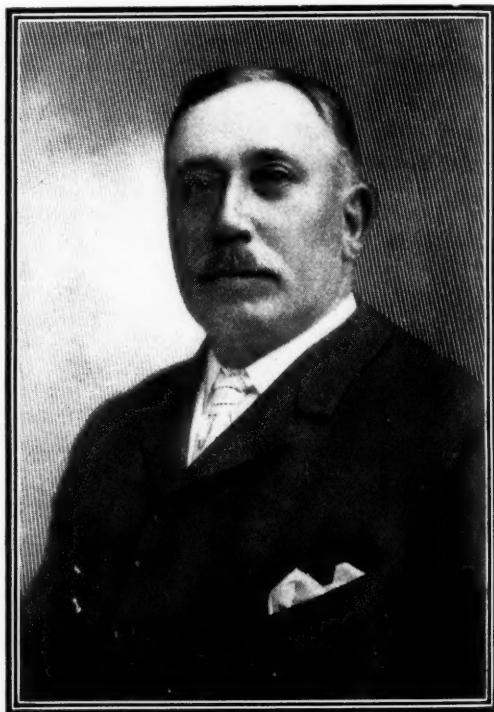
This unusual state of affairs offers an interesting explanation.

Germany—an inland confederation, the marvelous result of Bismarck's far-seeing policy—within twenty-five years rivaled England's hitherto unapproached commercial supremacy. England's concern was shown by the temper of the daily press and the technical journals. This society was started similar to the Verein Deutscher Chemiker. Continued efforts on the part of scientific men in public, and the meetings of the various societies, aroused Great Britain from its serene security in the control of the world's commerce. A royal commission was appointed, and its report showed that there was not only much to fear, but more to learn.

Germany's marvelous commercial growth furnishes its own explanation. A well-defined policy was outlined and followed consistently. The end aimed at was high,—the highest rank in the commerce of the world,—the means, to learn the best and make it, to invent the new and stimulate a call for it. "It is evident enough that no art or science can be known until learned, and to learn most rapidly and thoroughly, one must be taught." The state provided the technical schools and the best instruction. The manufacturers appreciated the value of such scientifically trained individuals and employed them. It is not to our point to discuss the economic conditions and methods of education, production, and distribution as followed by the German Government during this interval, nor are we willing to affirm that such are now or have ever been suitable for the United States. Suffice it to say that Mr. Gastrell, the British commercial

attaché at Berlin, saw fit to place the causes for Germany's commercial prosperity in the order given.

Ten years ago, the need for such a society was felt by progressive spirits in New York



MR. W. H. NICHOLS, THIRD PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

(Mr. Nichols is president of the General Chemical Company of America and founder of the Nichols Medal for chemical research.)

City. The American Chemical Society, which corresponds to the London Chemical Society and the Deutsche Chemische Gesellschaft, should deal more with the strictly scientific side. Instead of organizing a new society, a charter for the New York section of the English society was sought and readily granted. Now the membership of that section, which includes the

area of the United States, constitutes one-fourth of the entire society. Sections have been established in Australia and Canada, and during the recent meeting there was some talk of the formation of a Berlin section. The society is therefore becoming international in character, and why should it not?

Science speaks a universal language and knows no geographical, political, or social boundaries, otherwise Humphry Davy would never have been so cordially entertained by his French colleagues when the shores of England and France bristled with bayonets in bloody antagonism. Sir William Ramsay gracefully phrased the English-American relationship in response to a toast at a dinner given him at the Century Club by President Finley, of the College of the City of New York, as follows: "Intimate chemical combination or union results from two causes, explosion and fusion. We had the explosion a century ago; we shall enjoy the fusion now."

To be sure, there is a reverse side of the shield. One of the characters to be observed thereon is the reluctance of the manufacturers of one nation to allow proprietors or employees of like plants of a competing people to inspect their works. It may be mentioned in this connection that it is a point of honor among the members of the Society of Chemical Industry not to visit the works of another in the same line of production. The writer is unable to say what would be the outcome of a breach of this high standard of ethics, but it is not difficult to imagine.

The second apparent incompatibility of this meeting in particular was the character of the presiding officer. He is an investigator in the field of strictly pure science; he deals with theories, the most advanced; he is a teacher of the greatest success.

That the discoverer of five unique chemical elements, of absolutely no practical or commercial value, as far as we know, should be elevated to the highest position of honor among industrial chemists may at first glance seem odd, but, in fact, there was nothing inappropriate in it at all. In the first place, we do not know when some one may apply these lazy elements of Ramsay's to important commercial, medicinal, or other uses. Thorium oxide was known half a century before it was utilized as the basis of the Welsbach mantles, used now by the million as a means for attaining the softest and most economical gaslight. In the second place, it but emphasized the axiomatic truth so forcibly demonstrated by the recent history of Germany,—namely, the interdependence of pure and applied science.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century there has grown up an arbitrary division of chemistry, called physical. By many, even college presidents, it has been looked upon as dealing largely with abstract questions and one merely played in the laboratory. By the application of only a portion of the results obtained in this amusement, the United States now markets annually over one hundred millions of dollars of products in the form of aluminum, carborundum, sodium, bleaching powder, etc.

The converse is equally true. Demands on the part of manufacturers for improved processes or products, utilization of waste, etc., have stimulated and facilitated pure investigation. Only two instances need be cited, although examples might easily be multiplied. The drug trade demanded a quinine devoid of the bitter taste but retaining its anti-malarial properties, and it was made tasteless. The waste material from pitchblende was thrown away after the removal of most of the uranium until the Curies extracted radium from it. The radium business is rather profitable at the present time, whether it eventually prove to possess its heralded medicinal value or not.

Sir William Ramsay, in his retiring address, spoke on chemical pedagogy, most appropriately and clearly, from thirty years' experience. The future of any nation's industries must be looked after by those who learn to-day. Practically all forms of productive activity, from the cultivation of the soil for the growth of cotton to the finished tinted fabric, from the digging of the ore to the engines which distribute our commerce in its most varied ramifications, rest upon chemical phenomena. The manner and method of training of the men who will apply these phenomena are matters which have to do, not only with the future of the chemical industries concerned, but with the very vitality of nations.

The limits of this article and the patience of the reader, who may have followed us thus far, will not admit of a full exposition of the wisdom of expenditures for research. To some, it is apparent; to others, it may be said that the framing and execution of our pure-food laws is mainly the outgrowth of the researches of Dr. Wiley and his collaborators in Washington. But a few days ago a manufacturer showed the writer a part of his plant where he carried out on a commercial scale one research he had pursued in his private laboratory. He knew little of the materials when he began work on this particular problem, but he had the attitude of mind from his training. He produced a product better suited to the purpose than any yet

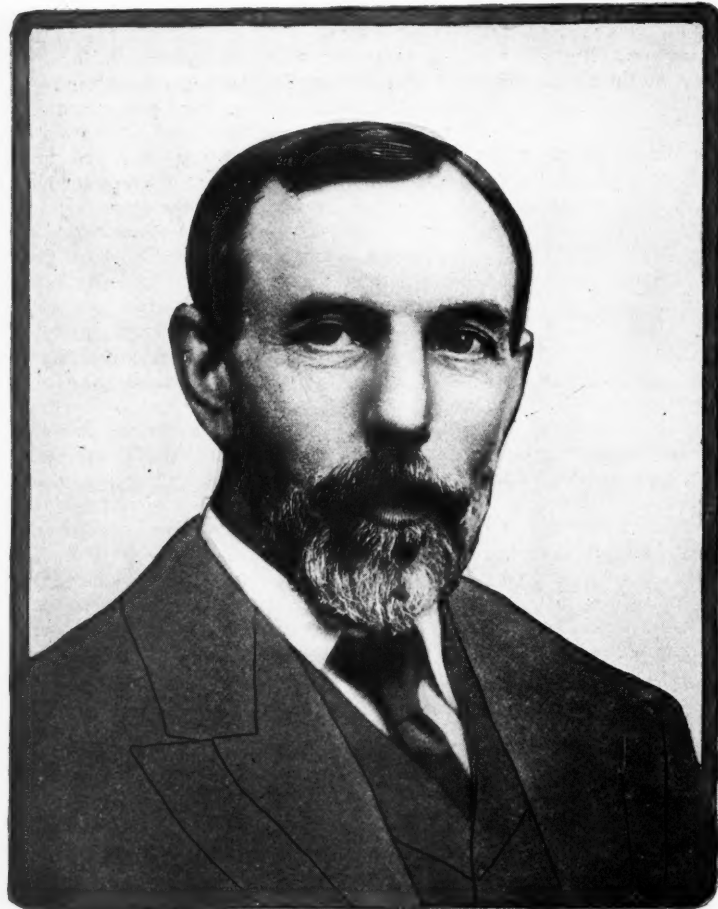
made, and although it has been on the market but a short time, he receives an annual income of fifteen thousand dollars from it.

Twenty-five years ago, Prof. Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University, as the result of a

It was quite fitting, therefore, that a society given to the practical applications should recognize him who has had to do only with teaching and investigation, especially when one of the results of his investigation had subsequently been successfully exploited on a commercial scale by others.

Touching American conditions, it may be remarked that great forward strides have been made and are making along the lines mentioned. On the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the American Chemical Society, a report of a special census committee was submitted. The writer had the honor of being chairman of that committee, and the amassed data passed through his hands. A conservative statement, averaging all, is that the accommodations for students, teachers, and chemists in America have increased in the proportion of one to twenty-five.

It is a fact, established by reliable statistics, that those sections of our country which have been most progressive, or have grown most rapidly, utilize most extensively the services of chemists. This is largely an economic problem, for twenty-five years ago profits were large and wastes enormous; now, with competition, local and foreign, the value of waste is appreciated, and chemistry regulates the control of that waste. There are not a few instances where the old waste by-product has



SIR WILLIAM RAMSAY, K.C.B., LL.D., F.R.S., RETIRING (SECOND) PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

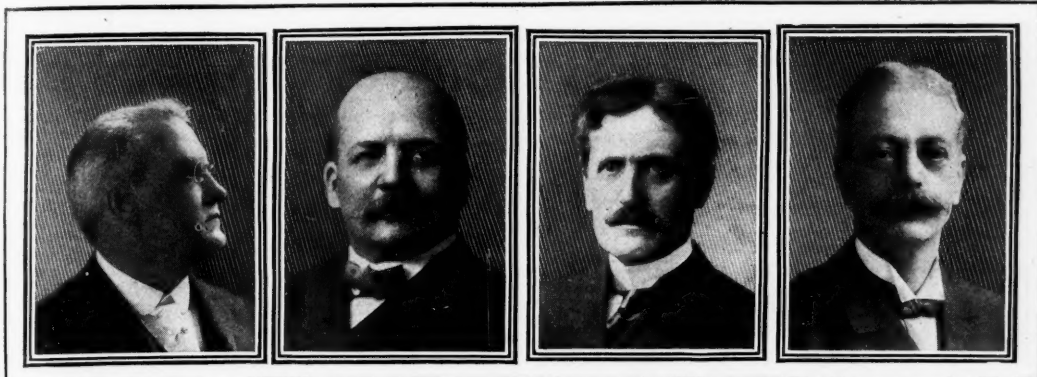
(British chemist, discoverer of five new elements, member of most of the world's scientific societies, and author of text-books and many articles.)

strictly scientific investigation, discovered a compound known technically as benzoic-sulphimide, or saccharine, possessing the property of sweetness to taste to an exceeding degree. It is well known that he never received one cent for this discovery, which has proved a boon to sufferers who must avoid sugar as a food.

It has happened that medals have been given by purely scientific bodies to men who have discovered commercially successful processes.

become the main material of the factory. Witness the extraction of oil from cotton seed in the Southern States, where the pressed cake is used for cattle food and fertilizer purposes.

The presiding officer of the Society of Chemical Industry is now the most successful American manufacturer of chemicals, Mr. W. H. Nichols, president of the General Chemical Company. He interweaves production with investigation; employs the best, produces the best.



MR. JAMES R. BRANCH, OF
NEW YORK.

(Secretary of the American
Bankers' Association.)

MR. WALKER HILL, OF
ST. LOUIS.

(President American Ex-
change Bank.)

GOV. MYRON T. HERRICK,
OF OHIO.

(President Society of Sav-
ings, Cleveland.)

MR. F. G. BIGELOW, OF
MILWAUKEE.

(Retiring president of the
Association.)

THE BANKERS' CONVENTION AT NEW YORK.

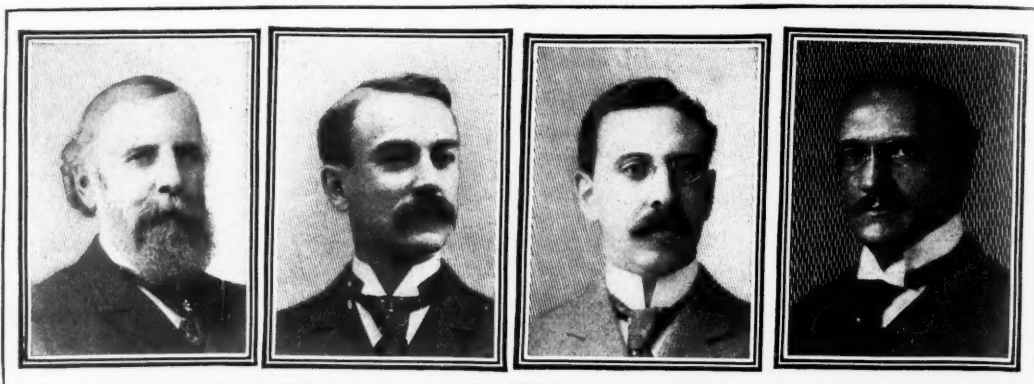
BY WILLIAM JUSTUS BOIES.

THE thirtieth annual convention of the American Bankers' Association, held in New York City, September 14, 15, and 16, attracted the largest assemblage ever gathered at a banking conference in this country. The thirty-two hundred delegates and their friends represented every variety of financial institution, from the little cross-roads concern that is glad to accommodate the owner of a donkey with a twenty-dollar loan to the heavily capitalized Wall Street bank that thinks nothing of underwriting a twenty-million-dollar venture. Never in the history of American banking has a more curious, complex, and unique attendance been secured at a banking function than that which brought together the custodians of more than eleven billion dollars of capital, surplus, and deposits. More than one multimillionaire bank president, whose office atmosphere is usually near zero, received a new impression of country deposits from shaking hands with the backwoods contingent. "You see," said a rural banker, "the big bugs are not the only factor in American banking after all. These conventions demonstrate that. We country fellows carry pretty heavy balances in New York, and in more than one way exert considerable influence in the financial affairs of the country. Wall Street covers only half a mile of the distance between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The great city bankers should never forget that. These gatherings are helpful in proportion as they make us better Americans by making us less provincial. While we country

bankers may not have as many pearl pins and black satin cravats as our city friends display, we try to keep in close enough touch with what is going on to avoid making unsafe loans. And I think," added the speaker, with a reminiscent smile, "that in the long run we succeed quite as well as our city friends do."

That was the attitude with which the corner-grocery bankers met the financiers of the principal cities, and it is difficult to tell which gained the most from the interview. Both were enthusiastic about the success of the convention, which did a great deal of serious work besides enjoying the entertainments provided for the afternoons and evenings.

And so, in this spirit of good-fellowship and frank discussion, the city did lose a little of its provincialism, as James Stillman, president of the New York Clearing House, in his welcoming address, expressed the hope that it would do. And the country, too, went home better enlightened about the status of Wall Street in financial affairs, and with less dread, perhaps, of the city's greedy outreaching for interior business. This, in fact,—the convention's human side,—with the spirit of coöperation that it promoted, was its distinct contribution, which will be remembered longer than the formal proceedings. But there was serious work accomplished, and for the first time in banking history the trust-company movement met the banks in close-range discussion of the needs for a cash reserve and the enactment of proper legislation



HON. LYMAN T. GAGE, OF
NEW YORK.

(President of the United
States Trust Company.)

MR. JOHN F. THOMPSON, OF
NEW YORK.

(Vice-president of the Bank-
ers' Trust Company.)

MR. ALBERT H. WIGG, OF
NEW YORK.

(Vice-president of the Na-
tional Park Bank.)

MR. CLARK WILLIAMS, OF
NEW YORK.

(Vice-president U. S. Mort-
gage and Trust Company.)

governing both classes of institutions. The discussions were held in separate rooms, and at different hours, as were also the deliberations of the savings-bank section, for the association long ago recognized the wisdom of organizing the various banks in separate groups, so as to admit of proper specialization. But each section held its conference at hours which did not conflict with the programme of the general convention, which was open to all delegates, and of peculiar interest because of the five-minute addresses by representatives of various sections.

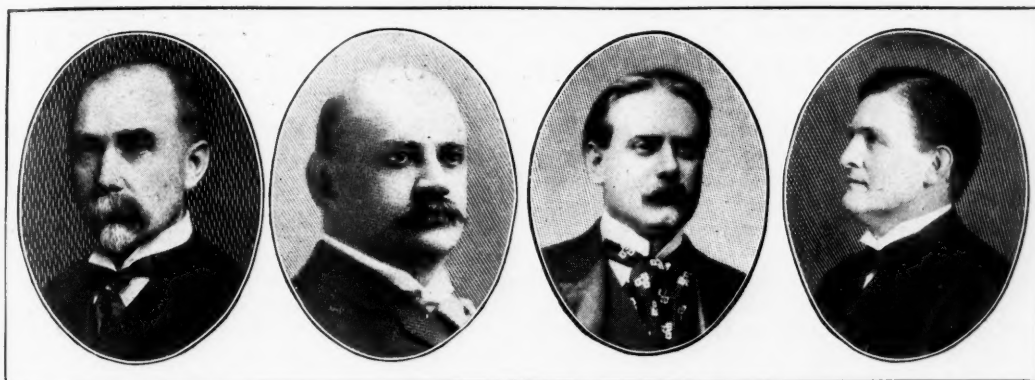
The formal proceedings included, as usual, a discussion of the ever-present currency question, with the usual suggestions concerning its cause and cure. A. B. Hepburn, of New York, gave an expert's view of the case, and a committee appointed at San Francisco a year ago told the results of its Washington investigation into what was practical and possible of accomplishment. Similar attention was given to the means of eliminating panics and preventing such periods of disturbance as caused the hardships of 1873 and 1893. Here the suggestions were of such general interest that I give four of the safeguards indicated in Mr. Andrew J. Frame's crusade against wild-cat banking.—(1) prohibiting, by federal statute, the operation of any banking institution not having a definite paid-in capital, except in the case of mutual savings-banks, which ought to accumulate a surplus; (2) such an amendment to the national banking act as would permit banks to make individual loans up to a fixed percentage of capital and surplus, instead of restricting such accommodation to one-tenth of capital, as is now done; (3) forcing all financial institutions (trust companies included) to maintain a definite cash reserve

against demand liabilities, with proper provision for preventing too hasty withdrawal of savings accounts when depositors become panic-stricken without cause; (4) permitting each bank to adjust its own interest rate, with the suggestion that the public be warned against doing business with such institutions as offer excessive terms for new business; and (5) giving proper scope to the present system of banking supervision as practised successfully by State and federal governments.

Mr. Frame added this word of warning, which has peculiar significance in view of the excesses of the recent period of speculation, from the burdens of which the great city banks have only just recovered:

National calamities are not born in country towns. Panics are bred in great cities, where colossal promotions flourish; where most, not all, banks fail to reduce interest-paying rates when money is easy; where the cashier is discharged (according to Secretary Shaw's witticism) when the board of directors find him with fifty thousand dollars surplus reserve; where the reserves are loaned to the stock-jobbers that ought to be held to meet the call of the country banks for their own deposits to move the crops. Then, when the stock-jobber is called upon to liquidate, he must attempt to rob Peter to pay Paul, but, because of the lack of a proper cash reserve generally, stocks decline on forced sales to obtain cash and general liquidation takes place. Conservative people in all pursuits do not allow a little surplus cash to burn in their pockets when they know that extraordinary payments will soon require its use, and bankers ought to be the leaders in conservatism.

These were plain words that caused some bankers to wince at the recollections of 1901. The country delegates chuckled at the discomfiture of their city friends. But, for all that, the appeal for conservatism was effective in this as in other addresses. The informal discus-

MR. A. B. HEPBURN, OF
NEW YORK.(Vice-president of the Chase
National Bank.)MR. JOSEPH C. HENDRIX,
OF NEW YORK.(President National Bank of
Commerce.)MR. GEORGE W. YOUNG,
OF NEW YORK.(President U. S. Mortgage
and Trust Company.)MR. JOSEPH G. BROWN, OF
RALEIGH, N. C.(President of the Citizens'
National Bank.)

sions were of more general interest, and touched a greater variety of topics, than those mentioned on the official programme. They contributed the varying views of different sections on the question of branch banks,—about which the country contingent is still up in arms,—uniform laws, asset currency, and the establishment of a satisfactory money-order system. In the private discussions, one theme that received general attention was the development of the financial department store. That picturesque institution is preëminently the product of twentieth-century American banking. No other country has it, but if we keep on organizing ten million-dollar and twenty-five-million-dollar banks this country will soon not be able to get along without it in the large centers. In New York City, there are four or five of these great money shops. They usually have one or two trust-company attachments, besides half-a-dozen smaller banks in near-by communities. These institutions do in a day what the old-fashioned bank formerly took a week to accomplish. Their business is splendidly organized, and managed by men who are experts in the art of shaking hands and making the out-of-town contingent feel at home. One of these banks has an "interior department" which does nothing but "keep tabs" on country bankers and the possibility of securing their accounts. This department has a complete list of the out-of-town correspondents of rival institutions, and full data covering such facts as average balance, usual accommodation required, class of business carried, and available details concerning the interior banker's family history. Just as soon as a consolidation is talked of in New

York, or a radical change in ownership takes place, letters are sent broadcast throughout the country inviting the clients of the New York bank in question to transfer their accounts to the rival institution, which "will offer every facility."

"Department-store banking" was in special evidence at the convention. You encountered it in the lobbies of the hotels, at the theaters, and at dinners and luncheons. Even the wives and daughters of the delegates saw something of it in the flowers and fruit that were rushed to their rooms. One Wall Street bank that has several hundred out-of-town accounts delegates one of its officers for "reception committee" duty. This official keeps in close touch with the movements of out-of-town clients, and sees that they are properly entertained on reaching the city. He makes a study of the bank's out-of-town accounts, and looks after the welfare of its customers in every way possible.

The association conducts an ambitious scheme of educational work through its American Institute of Bank Clerks, which now has twenty-eight chapters in different sections of the country. Under the auspices of this institute, a plan of official examination has been devised which is intended to centralize the various lines of instruction and maintain a definite system of banking education. The savings-bank section, having nearly six hundred members, devoted its session to the discussion of technical problems having reference to its special type of banking. The trust companies considered topics of more general interest, of which the question of maintaining a proper cash reserve was the most important.

THIS YEAR'S STRIKES AND THE PRESENT INDUSTRIAL SITUATION.

BY VICTOR S. YARROS.

STRIKES, deadlocks, lockouts, and threatened conflicts between capital and labor—or, to be more exact, between employers and employed—have for many weeks and months filled the pages of the daily press. While at any time since May 1 it might truly have been said, "Sufficient unto the day is the [industrial] evil thereof," it will generally be admitted that troubles even graver than those actually experienced have been apprehended in several parts of the country. Men of affairs seriously and anxiously spoke of a "crisis" in the economic life of the United States due directly to the attitude and activities of the labor organizations. And facts and figures could be freely cited to sustain this pessimistic view.

But there has been a decided change in the situation—a gratifying and reassuring change. The industrial sky is clearer, and the clouds are disappearing. Peace does not reign all along the line; there are several centers of storm and disturbance to which the improvement has not extended, and even where fairly normal conditions prevail once more the equilibrium is perhaps unstable. Still, things are very much better than they were during the summer, and there is reasonable hope of a period of industrial quiet and order and harmony. On the eve of a national election, and in view of the readiness of certain classes of so-called practical politicians to "make capital" out of any industrial dislocation, the change in question is doubly welcome. The strike for political effect is, happily, rare.

It is, of course, virtually impossible to ascertain the actual number of strikes and strikers (regarding the lockout as the employers' strike) in a country so vast as the United States. Recent estimates for which absolute precision cannot be claimed have placed the number of working men and working women idle on account, not of restricted production due to business causes, but of disputes and conflicts between employers and employed, at about one hundred and fifty thousand. Even this number would be an insignificant percentage of the great army of American wage-workers, but since these estimates were put forth, one great strike and several minor contests have been "mended or ended," and a new "census" would probably yield a total not exceeding seventy-five thousand men and women.

CHICAGO, "THE CITY OF STRIKES."

To take Chicago first, as the city which has long had a bad eminence in the matter of labor difficulties, a few weeks ago no fewer than eighty-nine strikes were in progress, involving a daily loss in wages alone of nearly sixty-seven thousand dollars. The "distribution" of these troubles was shown in the following table, which appeared on Labor Day in the *Chicago Tribune*:

	Number on Strike.
Packing trades, including butchers, teamsters, and twenty-eight allied trades.....	26,620
Garment workers, including cutters, bushelmen, examiners, and trimmers.....	400
Woodworkers, including men employed in furniture factories.....	3,000
Machinists, including men employed in machine shops, railroad shops, etc.....	1,350
Printing trades, including Franklin union, and other printers.....	100
Bakers—strike at Coyne and Heusner plants.....	100
Boilermakers at Illinois Steel plant and railroad shops.....	100
Laundry drivers.....	10
Miscellaneous, including bricklayers and other trades (estimated).....	500
Total.....	32,180

All the important strikes have since been brought to a close. The packing trades surrendered to the employers after obtaining slight concessions and a promise of a careful study of alleged grievances and the elimination of whatever abuses might be found to exist. This dispute was essentially "sympathetic" on the part of the skilled men. They walked out to secure recognition for their unskilled brethren and the restoration of a wage-rate which the packers, in the present state of the labor market, deemed excessive. Uncertainty as to collateral and subsequent issues renders it difficult even now to point any definite, plain moral for the benefit of either party.

The packers were charged with attempting to destroy unionism in the yards, with deliberate violation of the terms of a settlement based on the principle of "no discrimination" against unionists or sympathetic strikers as such, and with taking advantage of a temporary depression to force wages down below the level of subsistence according to American standards. On the other hand, the strikers were accused of Quixotic sentimentalism in so completely and recklessly subordinating their own welfare, and

that of their families, to the interest of unskilled laborers; of breach of contract in failing to abide by the provisions of an arbitration agreement; of a willful refusal to arbitrate the differences in the first place; of laying down their tools regardless of binding contracts expressly excluding sympathetic strikes, and of all manner of unreason and unfairness generally.

"FUNDAMENTAL ERRORS OF UNIONISM."

Now that the struggle is over, President Donnelly, of the butcher workmen's union, frankly admits that "many fundamental errors of unionism" have been disclosed in the process, and that it will be necessary for the chastened and defeated men to reorganize on "sounder principles." A bill of particulars would doubtless be instructive and enlightening, but who will demand its production? As for the packers, an appeal to their humanity and sense of fair play (an appeal made by three women identified with social settlement work) induced them to reënter into negotiations with the strike leaders, and they know full well that conditions in the stock yards were by no means ideal. But exactly what the strike has taught them will remain their own secret. The "third party," the great public, can only cry, "Peace, conciliation, mutual concessions," and hope that some benefit will result from the confused and confusing *dénouement*.

In some of the smaller strikes which Chicago has endured or is still enduring, greater and clearer issues have been presented. Foremost among them, beyond all question, is the open shop *versus* the union, or closed, shop. Just now, thanks to circumstances which cannot be set forth in this article, the question seems to have been postponed. There are many "closed shops" in Chicago by virtue of agreements which will not expire until next May. But the powerful and secret Employers' Association of this city (which association, it is stated, has assisted in the organization of a dozen similar bodies in the surrounding territory) has declared war on the closed shop, and within the past several months notice has been served on certain trade-unions that the closed-shop feature will not be tolerated as part of future contracts. Judging the future by the past, this decision will not be acquiesced in by the stronger unions without stubborn resistance.

Few of this year's strikes in Chicago were for increased wages or a shorter workday. Nearly all the grave and formidable ones, at all events, were due to the unwillingness of the employers to enter into closed-shop contracts. Most of these have been lost, but several are still in progress, and they include the locals of the National Garment Workers' Union. There is rea-

son to believe or fear that the "open shop" issue will in the near future constitute the paramount "labor" question in the Western centers of industry. The head of one of the largest businesses in Chicago was lately quoted as saying: "Some day the unions and the business community will have to fight it out to see who owns Chicago."

At present, however, to repeat, a state of calm and quiet characterizes practically every leading industry of Chicago. No trade has suffered more than printing; but after a year of war, of lawsuits, injunctions, small riots, and assaults on person and property (at least, if newspaper reports are to be relied on), there is a fair promise of peace for the next sixteen months, agreements having been concluded that run for a year from next January. The Chicago courts have less "labor" business than at any time in several years, and, in view of local tendencies, this is a telling piece of evidence.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN NEW YORK.

In New York, the conditions, at this writing, are not equally satisfactory, but the indications of an early improvement are strong. It is an interesting fact, by the way, that New York takes its labor troubles with a lighter heart than does Chicago. Its newspapers do not dwell on the subject, and when they deal with it they display a more philosophical temper. This may be an effect of age and riper experience,—Chicago would probably attribute it to a different and less creditable cause,—but the contrast itself is noteworthy.

An agreement just reached between the Interborough Rapid Transit Company on the one hand and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, and the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees on the other is believed to insure tranquillity for the next three years on both the subway and the elevated roads.

Minor controversies aside, the difficulty which has involved serious losses and permanent injury to unionism is that which has partially paralyzed the building industry. Less than a year ago, after a protracted and wasteful fight, a settlement was effected whereby the Employers' Association achieved a notable victory at the expense, not of the principle of labor organization, nor even of the unions then in existence, but of certain practices and elements of the building-trade unions. The "Sam Parks" affair is still within the general recollection, and the Employers' Association was established for the avowed purpose of uprooting "Parkism." The employ-

ers themselves, it will not have been forgotten, prepared an arbitration agreement which not only accorded full recognition to the unions but accepted and perpetuated the "closed shop" principle. Sympathetic strikes were barred, and it was stipulated that the representatives of the unions should not serve in the capacity of business agents,—an anti-blackmail provision.

ARBITRATION AND THE CLOSED SHOP.

This rather remarkable arbitration agreement never wholly commended itself to the unions, though many employers in other cities regarded it as excessively generous, if not improper in principle. A few months ago, certain of these organizations declared sympathetic strikes, in violation of the agreement, asserting that controversies had arisen which could not possibly be arbitrated. Repeated efforts at a settlement failed, and early in August a general lock-out was declared by the employers in the building trades.

Even then, however, the arbitration plan was not abandoned by the employers, and hundreds of strikers have returned to work under it, signing it individually, while retaining their membership in the unions. The strike is expected to fail, but it is doubtful whether advantage will be taken of the probable failure to repudiate the closed shop. Without prejudging pending proceedings, it seems that blackmail has not been eliminated in the building trades, and what the new act (secured by District Attorney Jerome) will accomplish in this direction remains to be seen. This legislation renders those paying blackmail equally punishable with those demanding or receiving it.

The strike, it should be added, has not been attended by any violence or disorder, which circumstance possibly accounts for the neglect of it by the editorial writers of the daily newspapers.

THE GARMENT WORKERS.

The unsuccessful strike of the New York garment workers, now a thing of the past, cannot be passed over without a word or two. It was caused by what appears to have been a purely Platonic resolution against the closed shop adopted by the National Association of Clothing Manufacturers. In this resolution the open shop was proclaimed to be the logical corollary of the principle of equal liberty and equal opportunity. At the same time, it was explicitly stated in less formal declarations that no practical change in the conditions prevailing in the shops was intended or contemplated. No union men were to be discharged, and no non-union men engaged in vindication of the new

policy. This disclaimer did not prevent the organized garment workers from quitting work as a protest against the open-shop principle, contrary to the earnest advice of their general secretary, Mr. Henry C. White, who resigned his position in consequence of this action, which he deemed unwise and unnecessary.

While the strike has not been called off, so many of the men have returned to work that the employers treat it as a negligible affair. New York expects to be as free from industrial disturbances in a week or two as Chicago is already.

THE OLD-FASHIONED STRIKE IN FALL RIVER.

From the view-point of mere numbers, the Fall River strike of the cotton-mill operatives is the greatest now in progress in the United States. From the beginning, it promised to be one of the most determined contests that the Massachusetts city has ever seen. This dispute, regrettable as it is, presents no bewildering complications. It is, so to speak, an old-fashioned sort of contest. The operatives refused to accept a 12½ per cent. wage-reduction which the mill-owners asserted was dictated by the inexorable condition of the market for their commodities and the market for their raw material. The mill-owners pointed to the high price of cotton, consequent upon the Sully speculation, on the one hand, and the decreased demand for their product on the other. Though they had reduced wages 10 per cent. last fall, and had also curtailed production, they could not "make both ends meet," and profits were out of the question. In spite of this absence of any return on the capital, they further averred, they did not wish to suspend work altogether, and they asked the operatives to make some sacrifice in their turn. But the latter pooch-pooched the representations of the mill-owners, alleging that the market conditions had merely reduced profits instead of wiping them out, and that there was "money enough in the business" to pay reasonable dividends as well as to maintain the old scale of wages.

Here was an issue of fact, not of principle, and it is impossible for a fair-minded outsider to decide, absolutely, whether the mill-owners or the thirty thousand operatives who, with practical unanimity, voted to strike were right. It has been suggested that low wages are better than no wages at all, and that a few weeks' idleness will represent a heavy loss that can never be recovered; the leaders of the striking unions meet this argument by saying that it would apply to any and all reductions of wages, no matter how gratuitous and needless they might be, and that its logical conclusion is that men ought to work for any wages employers choose to pay,

since crumbs are preferable to no bread at all. Neither side having urged a reference of the issue of fact,—the ability of the mill-owners to pay the old rate without surrendering all profits or incurring positive losses,—resumption was in no way provided for, and the mills may remain closed until October. This strike, too, is thoroughly orderly and pacific.

THE UNUSUAL SITUATION IN COLORADO.

From Fall River to the mining districts of Colorado is "a far cry." It is likewise a far cry from the passive (whether wise or unwise) resistance of the cotton-mill operatives to a proposed reduction to the sort of troubles which have disgraced Cripple Creek, Telluride, and other Colorado districts. It is not necessary to review the whole difficulty, with the outrages that have accompanied or followed, in this article. Newspapers and magazines have familiarized readers with the salient features of the situation, and here it is only proper to state that, while the conditions are gradually and slowly undergoing a change for the better (there could hardly have been, at certain times, a change for the worse), much is still left to be desired.

When Governor Peabody declared military law in the affected districts to be at an end, he intimated also that the Western Federation of Miners might do its part by calling off the strike, originally caused by a controversy over an eight-hour bill. The federation's answer was that there was no connection between the executive's action and the merits of the strike. To the people at large, however, the Colorado conflict has for a long time presented other than purely industrial aspects. The law and order issue has obscured and overshadowed every other. The eight-hour legislation has been completely lost sight of, as have been questions of the responsibility of certain individuals for certain offenses. Even allowing for exaggeration, some Colorado counties for a time reverted to barbarism and civil chaos; what we call civilization was unknown there.

A renewal of violence and outrage was reported in the press some weeks ago, and a statement has been published alleging a confession by one of the deported miners in regard to one of the dynamite plots; but no further intelligence of an alarming character has been received. Non-union and ex-union men are working or applying for work in the mines, and it is probable that the final phase of the trouble will be political—in a partisan sense. In the mean-

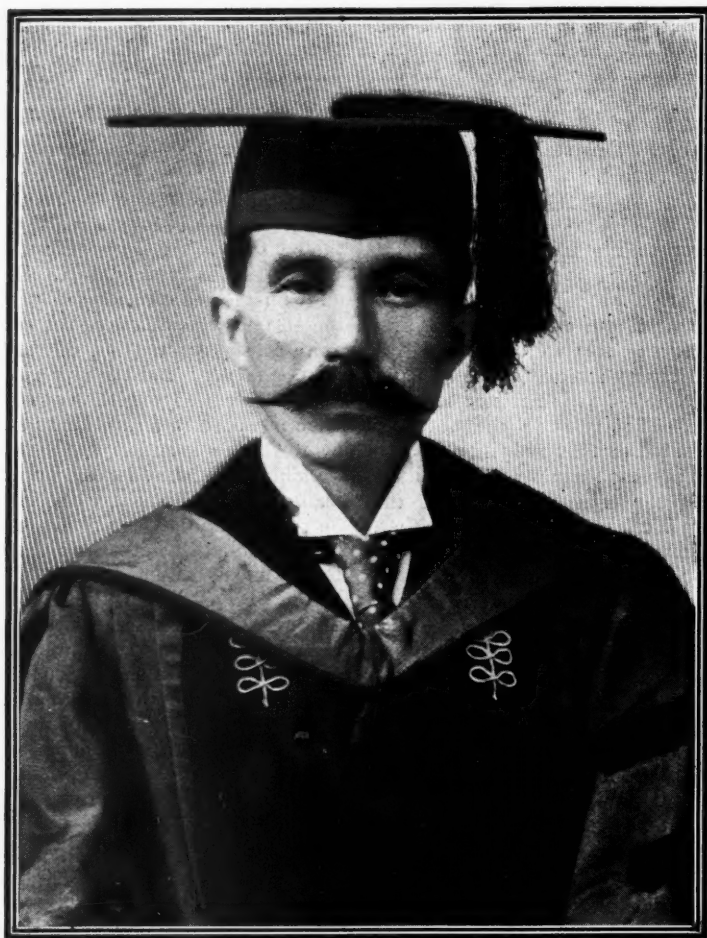
time, the federal courts are acquiring jurisdiction over some of the constitutional "premises" of the contest, and questions of vital importance will eventually be settled in this connection.

SAN FRANCISCO UNIONS AND POLITICS.

A rather peculiar situation exists in San Francisco,—the "unionized city *par excellence*," according to certain accounts. Not that much actual warfare has occurred there of late; quite the contrary. The impression prevails, however, that a crisis is approaching. The manufacturing and business interests are profoundly discontented; they complain of the arrogance and tyranny of the unions, and of the hostility of the "labor mayor" and the city government generally. The employers, the country has been told, have not been in a position to oppose the unions even where opposition would have been unquestionably justifiable, for the authorities systematically favored labor and could not be depended on to give capital the protection it had the right to demand. But it seems that the unions are by no means satisfied with the *status quo*. One labor organ affirms that the San Francisco unionists "are through with politics," and that the effect of taking the industrial problem into municipal politics has been largely to transfer the direction of the labor movement to the hands of men who would subordinate the interests of labor to the schemes of a political machine. The lesson of San Francisco's experience is said to be that "the best thing a trade-union can do after getting into politics is to get out again as quickly as possible."

In the great coal industry, peace reigns. The bituminous miners accepted a reduction of wages and entered into an "interstate" agreement with the operators. In the anthracite region, there has been some friction, but, on the whole, the award of the Gray arbitration board has been faithfully observed. Last summer, a strike seemed to be imminent; better counsel prevailed, however, and the dispute,—one involving no principle,—was referred to Judge Gray for determination.

To sum up, the industrial developments of the last few months have resulted in a distinct improvement. The period of active contention and strife is closed, the falling market and the number of unsuccessful strikes having doubtless hastened the change. At no time, however, did the labor movement bristle with more questions of moment and interest than now. This side of the subject requires separate treatment.

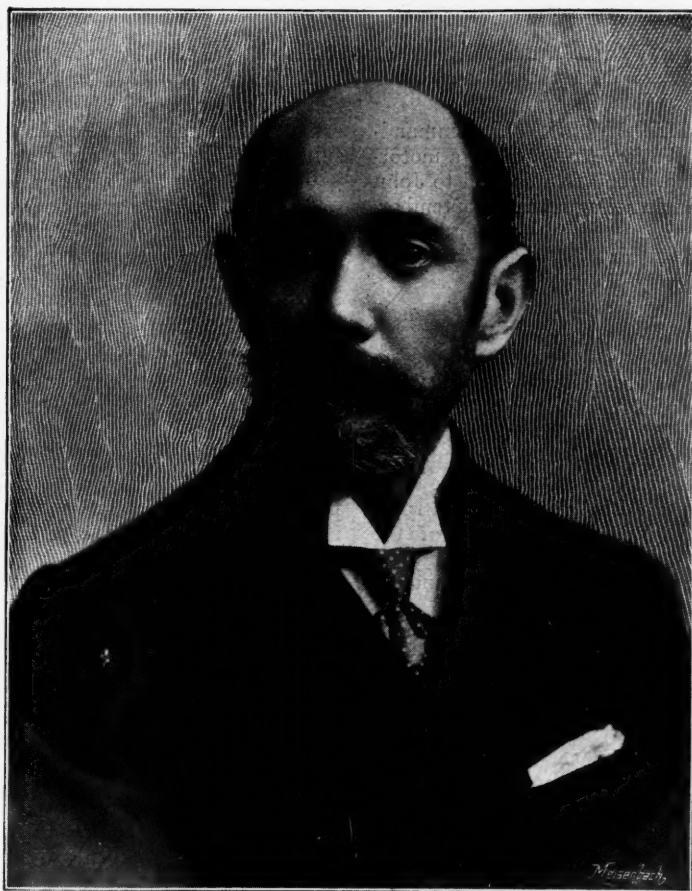


BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

THIS Japanese statesman, who has been in the United States for several months, making a tour of the country and studying economic conditions, with special reference to American progress as shown at the St. Louis Exposition, is a Samurai and a distinguished member of the Japanese House of Peers. Baron Kaneko has been intrusted by his government with a very important mission, making him virtually a special ambassador to the American people. His strong and informing article on Japan's ability to finance a long war, which we publish this month (on page 454), is the authoritative word on the subject.

Baron Kaneko graduated from the Harvard Law School in 1878, and later became professor of law in the Imperial University, at Tokio. He

then entered the foreign department of the government, and rose to the position of minister of state for agriculture and commerce. He has also been chief secretary of the House of Peers, and minister of justice. In June, 1899, he was again in this country, and then received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard University. In conferring the degree, President Eliot addressed the baron thus: "Kentaro Kaneko, Harvard bachelor of laws, formerly chief secretary of the Imperial House of Peers in Japan, minister of agriculture and commerce, life member of the House of Peers, the type of those scholars of two hemispheres through whom West would welcome East to share in the inheritance of Hebrew religion, Greek art, Roman law, and nineteenth-century science."



DR. E. J. DILLON, JOURNALIST AND TRAVELER.

DR. EMILE JOSEPH DILLON, whose article dealing with the effects of the present war on Russian conditions begins on page 449 of this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, was born in Ireland about fifty years ago. His mother was English and his father Irish. Dr. Dillon received his university education on the Continent, at the Collège de France, Paris, and at the Universities of Innsbruck, Leipsic, Tübingen, St. Petersburg, Louvain, and Kharkoff, where he attended lectures on philology, theology, historical criticism, and philosophy. It is said that he is the only writer in the ranks of London journalism who can compose an article with equal facility in English, French, German, or Russian. He is the master, also, of many other languages. Dr. Dillon married a Russian lady in 1881, and since that date has lived much of the time in St.

Petersburg. He first attracted attention as the writer of a series of brilliant articles on Russia in the leading English reviews. Later, he became the St. Petersburg correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph*, and on special commissions for that newspaper he achieved noteworthy journalistic triumphs in Armenia in 1895, in Spain on the eve of the Spanish-American War, in Crete, in France during the Dreyfus excitement, and in China after the Boxer insurrection. Dr. Dillon is the author of many books on philological and literary topics, and is a man of marvelous erudition and versatility, but his reputation in England and America is chiefly based on his intimate knowledge of Russian economic, social, and political conditions,—a knowledge which is shared by few other writers.

THE SALVATION ARMY'S LATEST PROBLEM.

GENERAL WILLIAM BOOTH, commander of the Salvation Army, made a motor-car tour of England, from Land's End to John o'Groat's House, during August and September. The spectacle of the aged general—General Booth was seventy-five last birthday—reviving energies exhausted by delivering nearly sixty speeches in the three weeks' congress of the army by motoring through Britain on a kind of twentieth-century episcopal inspection of his diocese, struck the public imagination. Everywhere crowds turned out to see the man whom the English King delighted to honor, and to see the most remarkable religious leader of his day and generation. But although the multitudes who lined the course of General Booth's more than royal progress northward naturally thought of the past and its achievements, the old man eloquent was thinking altogether of the future and its possible triumphs.

The general has inspected the planet. He finds it empty in spots, sparsely peopled in many places, and densely overcrowded in others. He finds many men working for starvation wages in one place, and employment offering in vain huge wages in another place. In a well-regulated planet such anomalies would not exist. For the ideal of a well-regulated state is that every citizen should know how to make the best of himself, and how to take his labor to the best market. To do this it is necessary that he should know where that market is, and how to get there. That implies an up-to-date labor bureau and intelligence department, served by honest, zealous agents all over the world.

"It is not enough," said General Booth, "that the individual should be told that somewhere or other, thousands of miles off, somebody wants to hire him. It is necessary to do more than that. You have to bridge the distance between the worker and his work, to bring him to his work, and in the case of a new country, to see to it that the newly transplanted worker is not flung out into the wilderness to starve, but is carefully planted and tended and supplied with the society and social necessities which have come to be to him indispensable. I do not mean that you must cosset and pamper the man. But you must realize what kind of being he is, what he really needs. Man is a social animal, and if you plant out a man reared in this crowded country in the back settlements, with no neighbor within five miles, and that neighbor a man who

cannot talk English, failure is the inevitable result."

"Where does the Salvation Army come in?"

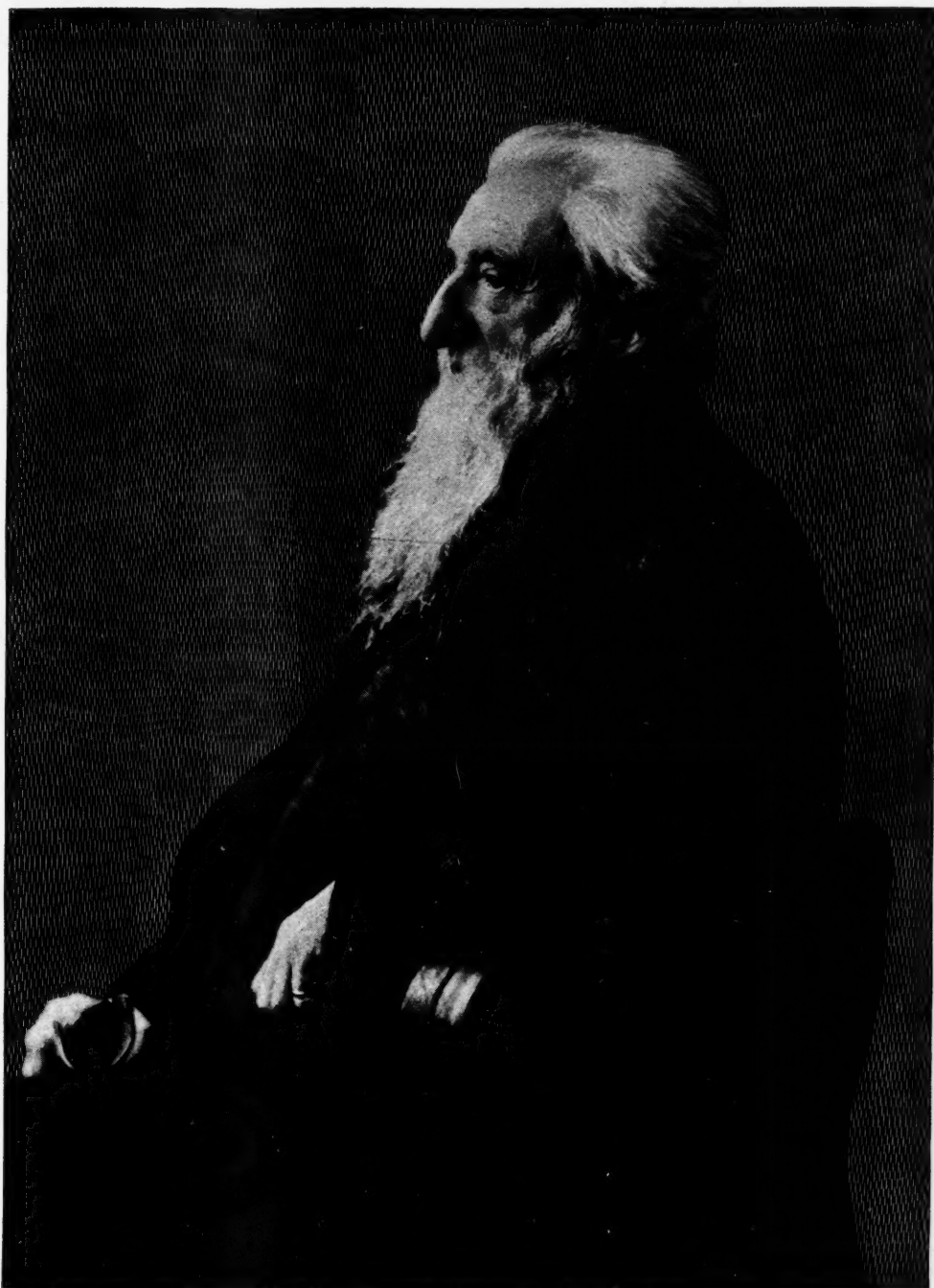
"The Salvation Army comes in right here: that the one indispensable thing in attempting any of this labor-bureau work is the character of the agency which seeks to bring the workless worker into fertilizing contact with those who want his labor. Everything depends upon the character of the agency. It must be honest. It must not be partisan. It must side neither with trade-unionist nor capitalist, but it must be trusted by both. Then, again, it must not be a parochial institution. It must have branches everywhere; its agents should permeate the planet. It must be an agency with a heart in it, a heart to love, to care for, and to understand the needs of men."

"In other words, it must be the Salvation Army?"

"I do not say that," said the general. "But if the Salvation Army fills the bill, woe be unto us if we do not use it to meet this great oppressing need. We want to help people. We are helping people. But we want to help more people. And this is one of the ways for doing it. Why do not those colonies which want immigrants make us their immigration agents? We would do the work for them far better than they can do it for themselves. But it is too much to expect us to do the work at our own cost. We would not charge them anything for commission—only out-of-pocket expenses—and the necessary advance to transfer the willing worker from the place where no one wants him to the place where everybody is clamoring for him. They would get it all back over and over again. They might even get it back in direct cash repayment. For the right kind of man pays back what is lent him. We have sent out hundreds and hundreds, and we find they expect to repay it. Only we cannot afford to stand out of the money that ought to be borne by those who want the men."

"Then do you think there are the right kind of men to be got in this country?"

"Heaps of them. Heaps. They only want a chance. The men who won't work are very few. The people who need someone to give them a helping hand are very many. They are very good fellows; only they need leading—directing. They are ready enough to obey. But they need a lead."



THE REV. WILLIAM BOOTH, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

[This recent portrait of General Booth (who is now seventy-five years of age) represents him as he appeared when he was summoned to court to receive the congratulations of King Edward during the meeting of the Salvation Army's International Congress in London, last July.]



THE JUNGFRAU RAILWAY, IN SWITZERLAND.

THE STEEPEST RAILWAY IN THE WORLD.

THE JUNGFRAU RAILWAY,—A TRIUMPH OF SWISS
ENGINEERING SKILL.

BY HUGO ERICHSEN.

WHEN the Jungfrau Railway is completed, it will unquestionably be the steepest railway in the world, for its grade is within 2 per cent. of forty-five degrees.

The Jungfrau, one of the most beautiful mountains in Europe, is one of the chief peaks of the Bernese Alps, and rises far above the limits of perpetual snow. For many years, all efforts to render this virgin mountain more accessible proved unavailing, until the late Guyer-Zeller, of Zurich, solved the problem that had puzzled so many engineers. In 1894, he obtained a concession, extending over eighty years, from the Swiss Federal Council for what is unquestionably one of the most stupendous engineering feats ever attempted.

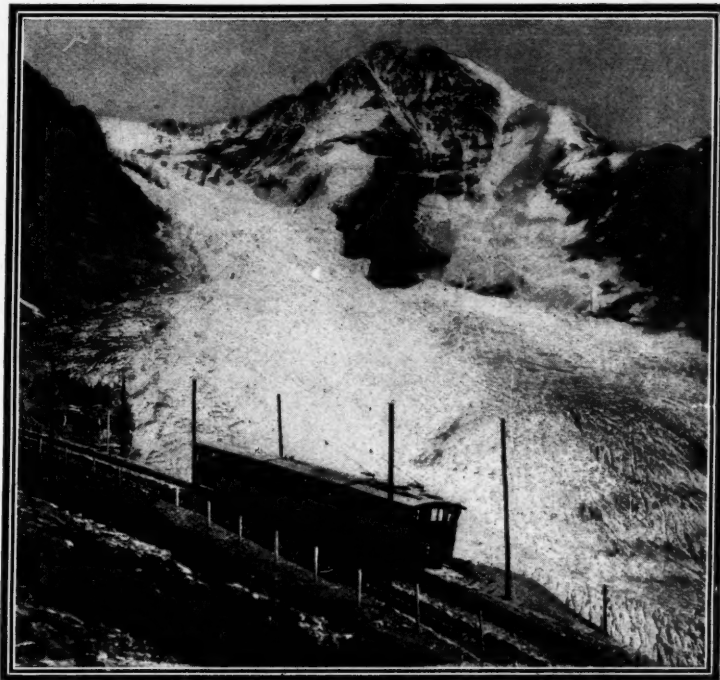
The difficulty of the project was increased by the fact that the Eiger and the Moench had to be pierced before the Jungfrau could be entered, in order to obtain the required grade. But by August, 1896, all preliminary obstacles had been surmounted, the line of the railway had been decided upon, and rail-laying had been begun. And in September, 1898, the first section was opened.

The starting-point of the railway is at Scheidegg, on top of the Wengernalp, which may be conveniently reached by rail from Interlaken. From here, an electric car takes you to the Mer de Glace station, which has been just completed and is the present terminus of the road, ten thousand seven hundred and twenty feet

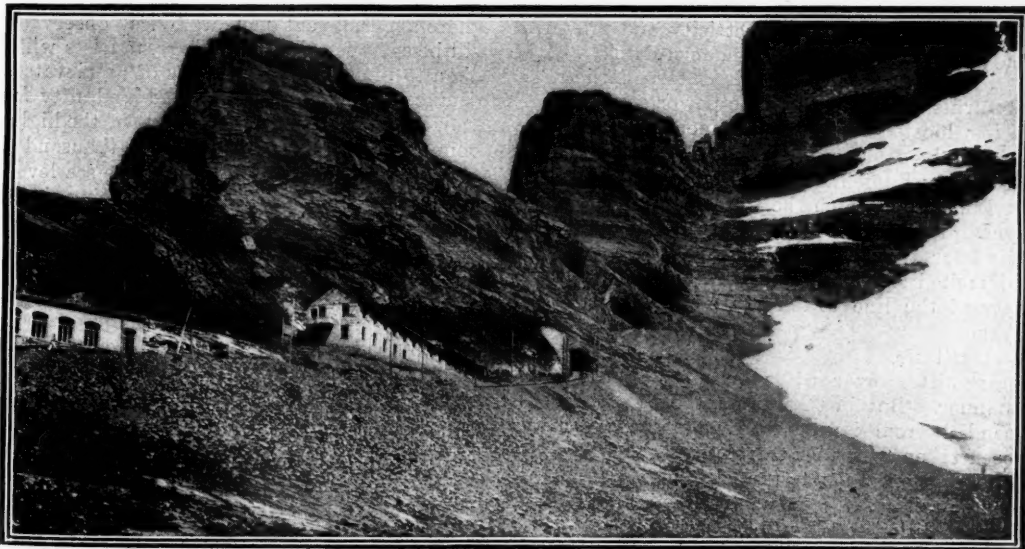
above sea level. The trolley line runs first on open ground, gradually ascending on the slopes of the great snow-capped Eiger. When the mountain-side is reached, the line plunges into the rock at a grade of 25 per cent. Thus far, only four miles of the six-mile tunnel have been completed, the length of the entire road, as projected, being eight miles. The work of tunneling is very slow, owing to the tenacious character of the calcareous rock. At the present rate of progress—two yards a day—it will be several years before the remainder of the task will be accomplished. Three hundred Italians delve in the hearts of these mountains all the year round, being cut off from the world during the winter months,—exiles in the snow.

At Rothstock, the second station, which is two miles from Scheidegg and three-fourths of a mile from the point where the line enters the mountain-side, and at the Eigerwand station, as well as at the terminus, there are

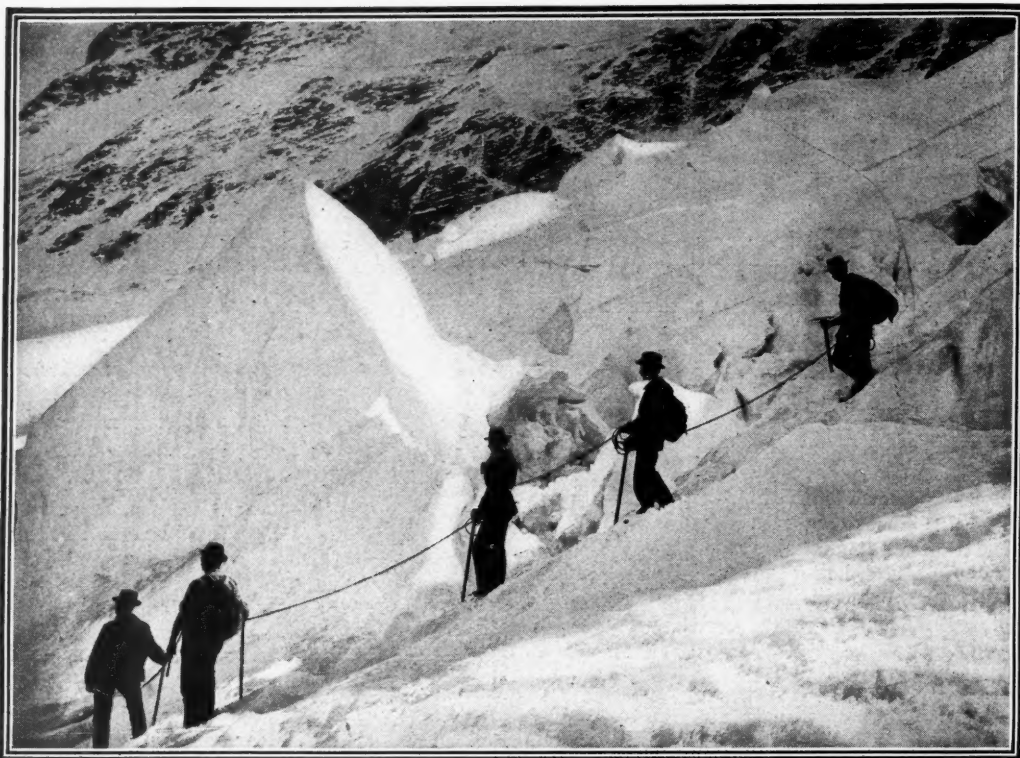
transverse galleries abutting on large openings from which tourists can admire the magnificent Alpine scenery, secure from the dreadful ava-



THE EIGER GLACIER.



THE GLACIER STATION AND THE EIGER TUNNEL.



TOURISTS DESCENDING FROM THE JUNGFRAU THROUGH A LABYRINTH OF ICE.

lanche. These stations are lined with wood, heated and lighted with electricity, and provided with all the comforts of a modern hotel.

The electric power required to run the road is furnished by two turbine power stations, one being located at Lauterbrunnen and the other at Grindelwald, on the banks of the White and the Black Luetchine, respectively, two mountain streams from which the water power is derived. One good feature of this arrangement is that the finer the weather, the greater the quantity of melted snow, and the greater, also, the capacity of the line to take care of an increase of traffic.

Until the tunnel is reached, the current is transmitted over wires on poles in the usual manner. But in the tunnel, the wires are suspended from its roof. Every precaution has been taken to render travel over the line absolutely safe. In the tunnel, there is a heavy center rail—a Riggenbach rack and pinion affair—in addition to the usual rails. The line is a single one in the tunnel and a double one at the stations, where the locomotives pass one another.

Ultimately, the terminus of the railway will

be located on a plateau just below the summit, where a permanent meteorological observatory will be established. From here, tourists will be taken to the summit by means of an elevator, a distance of about two hundred and fifty feet. And, standing upon the top of one of the highest mountains in the world—thirteen thousand six hundred and seventy-one feet above sea level—they will enjoy a superb view taking in the Aletschorn, Finsteraarhorn, Weisshorn, Dent Blanche, Monte Rosa, and Mont Cervin.

When the line is completed, the tourist will no longer be obliged to make a dangerous ascent, over glaciers abounding in perilous crevasses and up sheer precipices, at an expense of three hundred and sixty francs for himself and two guides. Instead of being under way for a hundred hours, he will make the journey in two, at the comparatively small expense of nine dollars for the round trip.

Although the projectors of the road have already expended over eight million francs in the undertaking, they expect to be able to realize annual dividends of 5 per cent. when it is entirely completed.

GENERAL KUROPATKIN, HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON.

THE events around Liao-Yang have at last shown General Kuropatkin and the Russian army under his command in a truer light, making clear, at the same time, the immense difficulties Kuropatkin has had to face and the splendid efforts he has made to overcome them. It is by no means easy for the general reader to gain an intelligent understanding of complicated strategical movements from the fragmentary telegrams and imperfect maps within his reach; but there has been something so dramatic and so titanically simple in the great Liao-Yang battle that even the most careless reader has begun to understand what has actually taken place, and the magnitude and significance of the problems involved. Even the man in the street now sees how wonderful was General Kuropatkin's achievement, though he was technically vanquished in the great fight. The tremendous forces of intellect and will which he brought to bear are fully realized, and we are all better able to take the measure of the man.

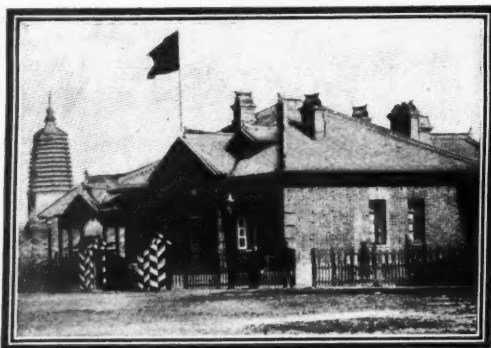
Yet this great achievement is only the logical outcome of the man's whole career; at every point, he has shown the same qualities of insight and determination, the same high personal cour-



GENERAL ALEXEI NICOLAIEVITCH KUROPATKIN.

(Commander-in-chief of the Russian army in the far East.)

age. No officer living has more hard-earned distinctions for valor. Few officers have an equally high record for military science and erudition.



GENERAL KUROPATKIN'S HEADQUARTERS AT LIAO-YANG.
(Showing pagoda outside West Gate.)

KUROPATKIN BORN A SOLDIER.

General Kuropatkin is a born soldier. His father was an officer, who retired from active service when Kuropatkin was of school age and settled down on his landed estate at Pskov, near St. Petersburg. Kuropatkin went to the military school of the cadet corps, and then to the Pavlovskoe military college, graduating and gaining his commission as sub-lieutenant when he was eighteen. At this time, one great chapter of Asian history had just been closed, and another had been opened. Count Muravieff had added to the Russian Empire the immense territory along the Amur of which Vladivostok is the capital, and General Chernaieff had completed the first two years of the Turkestan war. Thus, Kuropatkin grew up in an atmosphere of Russian expansion in the East, and as soon as he had his commission, hastened to the scene of conflict in Central Asia. He reached the front in 1866, being then eighteen years old, and for two years took part in the most severe fighting against the warlike descendants of Tamerlane's hordes, in battles in which the Russians were for the most part outnumbered ten to one. In 1868, the conquest of Bokhara was complete, and Kuropatkin returned to St. Petersburg, with the rank of lieutenant, several wounds, and two decorations "for distinguished valor." The campaign had added the cities and territories of Chemkent, Tashkent, Khodjent, and Samarkand to the Russian Empire, with the status of semi-independent protected states.

Kuropatkin spent the six years from 1868 to 1874 in hard study at the Academy of the General Staff, at St. Petersburg. This period included the Prussian advance on Strasburg and Metz, the disaster of Sedan, and the siege of Paris; in a word, the revelation of von Moltke's military genius, and painfully elaborated preparations, all of which Kuropatkin followed with

the most minute attention. At the end of his six years' studies, he distinguished himself remarkably in the examination hall, coming out at the head of his class, with unusually high marks all around. It is customary to give a special reward to the best student in each year. In the case of Kuropatkin, it took the form of a special traveling grant, to enable him to continue his military studies abroad.

HIS SYMPATHIES WITH FRANCE.

The sympathies which afterward ripened into the Franco-Russian alliance were doubtless already at work, for Kuropatkin, instead of going to victorious Berlin to study von Moltke's theories and methods at the fountain-head, stayed only a short time at the Prussian capital, and then went on to France. Here he came into close relations with two very remarkable men,—Marshal MacMahon, then president of the French Republic, and the Marquis de Galliffet, who only three years ago resigned from Waldeck-Rousseau's "Ministry of all the Talents," to give place to General André. The marquis, though born to royalist traditions, had warmly espoused the cause of the republic; he had fought valiantly against the Prussians, and had gained lasting fame by his vigorous military measures against the Commune, which saved France from anarchy. Kuropatkin was associated with him first in drawing up plans for a reconstruction of the French cavalry arm from the *débris* of the Franco-Prussian War, and, secondly, in planning a part of the great maneuvers held in the neighborhood of Metz. Though he was only twenty-six at this time, Kuropatkin's assistance was deemed so efficient that the French Government rewarded him with the cross of the Legion of Honor.

France was then consolidating her power in Algeria, where her total territories are somewhat larger than California, and where problems had to be faced very like those which Russia was then facing in Turkestan. Kuropatkin obtained permission to join General Laverdeau's expedition, and spent about a year going through the length and breadth of France's chief African colony. He wrote a book on Algeria, in French, and later in Russian, which gained him a second degree of the Legion of Honor and the gold medal of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg.

HIS APPRENTICESHIP WITH SKOBELEFF.

Returning to Russia, Kuropatkin was once more sent to Central Asia, where he joined the staff of the immortal Skobelev, with whom he fought two famous campaigns in later years.

While Kuropatkin was studying at St. Petersburg and traveling in France, another of the Central Asian khanates had been conquered,—Khiva had gone the way of Bokhara, and a territory as large as Texas, made up from the two khanates, was gradually becoming Russianized under General Kauffmann. A third khanate remained, that of Khokand, stretching to the north of the Pamir plateau, and touching the Chinese Empire on the east, at Jungaria. Kuropatkin was joined with Skobelev in the conquest of this khanate, and then went on a special mission, occupying a year, into the wilds of Tartary and western China, the regions from which had emerged Genghis Khan, and his two grandsons, Kublai and Batu Khan, one of whom conquered China, while the other invaded and subdued Russia. In this wild and desolate region Kuropatkin did some fighting,—being once more wounded,—and more exploring, the result of which, in another book, entitled "Kashgaria," won him another gold medal from the Imperial Geographical Society on the bank of the Neva River. Kuropatkin had now reached his twenty-ninth year, and had three years of fighting, two years of exploration in eastern Asia and Africa, and six years of study to his credit. He had written two books, won a number of Russian decorations "for valor," as well as two degrees of the Legion of Honor, and had received many wounds, from sword and bullet alike.

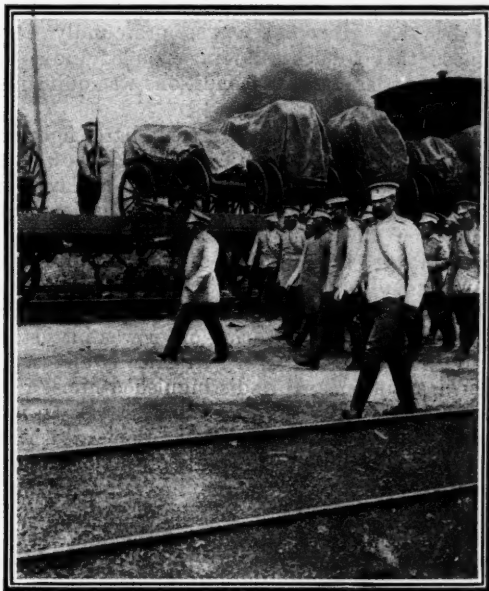
THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877-78.

If we imagine the Armenian massacres and the recent Macedonian atrocities multiplied tenfold, we have the conditions in the Balkans which led Russia to declare war against Turkey in April, 1877. The armies of the Czar, having no fleet to guard transports which might take them to the Sultan's door, were forced to go thither on foot, passing through the dominions of the Prince of Roumania, who had signed an alliance with Russia. It took the Russian forces nearly two months of hard marching to reach the Danube, where the war practically began. They had three obstacles before them on their march to Constantinople,—first, the wide and deep Danube; second, the plain of Servia, with its Turkish garrisons; third, the snowy ridges of the Balkans. Skobelev set the example of reckless daring by riding on his white horse into the Danube and swimming across. But the entire Russian army could hardly follow suit. The Danube was patrolled by Turkish gunboats, ironclads, and monitors, commanded by a renegade Englishman, Hobart Pasha, who had many English and American officers in his fleet. Two

men gained lasting renown by their torpedo attacks on the Turkish ironclads—Skrydloff and Makaroff—both of whom have since sent their names ringing round the world.

The next difficulty was the Servian plain. Osman Pasha had seized a naturally strong position at Plevna, with sixty thousand veteran troops, armed with American Peabody-Martini rifles, and well supplied with ammunition. He threatened the Russian line of communications, and it was impossible to go on until Osman was put out of the way. This is the situation which gave rise to the three assaults on Plevna, of which General Kuropatkin has written admirably, though very technically, in his book on Skobelev's Division. Kuropatkin was then chief of staff to Skobelev, and he took part in one remarkable exploit which does not receive justice in his own book. It was during the third assault on Plevna, when Skobelev was attacking a group of redoubts on the extreme right of the Turkish position, along the famous line of the Green Hills. Gen. Francis Vinton Greene, who was present at the battle, thus records the part played by Kuropatkin in one striking episode:

The Russians had lost three thousand men in the assault, which lasted little less than an hour. But the fight did not in the least abate. The middle redoubt, which the Russians had taken, as well as the eastern one, which was still in the hands of the Turks, were, properly speaking, not redoubts at all, since they were only built up on three sides; the front side of each was sim-



GENERAL KUROPATKIN INSPECTING A BAGGAGE TRAIN AT TA-CHE-KIAO, BEFORE HIS RETREAT TO LIAO-YANG.

ply an increased height to the strong line of trench connecting the two and extending to the west (left) of the middle one; the other two sides were properly mere traverses to this line; and the fourth side, the rear, was wholly open and exposed to the fire from the trench of the camp only six hundred yards off. The ground was hard and rocky, and there were no spades at hand for digging. While the Turks, therefore, kept up an incessant fire from this camp, and from the eastern redoubt, which was still in their possession, a force of one or two battalions sortied from the redoubt on the left of the Russians and advanced to the attack of the left flank. Seeing this, Colonel Kuropatkin, chief of staff to Skobelev, and the only one of his staff not killed or wounded, took about three hundred men and went forward to meet these Turks in the open. A desperate fight at short range took place, in which the Russians lost the greater part of this little force but drove the Turks back to their redoubt.

Kuropatkin spent the next month in hospital at Bucharest, but he was back with Skobelev again at the fierce fight of Sheinovo, which General Greene well calls "one of the most splendid assaults ever made." Kuropatkin was again wounded, and emerged from the campaign with three more decorations "for valor," and with two more volumes to his credit.

FROM GENERAL STAFF TO WAR MINISTRY.

With one interval, Kuropatkin spent the next twelve years at St. Petersburg, as professor of military statistics at the Academy of the General Staff. It was, perhaps, at this time that he drew up a plan for an invasion of India, as an academic exercise; but the truth seems to be that Kuropatkin was profoundly convinced that a successful invasion of India by Russia under existent conditions was quite impossible.

He was presently to see some hard fighting not far from the frontier of India, however. The Turcomans, inhabiting a tract as large as the Austrian Empire, beyond the Caspian Sea, had been guilty of endless acts of brigandage and pillage, and a series of abortive Russian campaigns had brought the whole region into a condition of anarchy. To Skobelev and Kuropatkin the task of restoring order was intrusted, and they did their work drastically and well. Kuropatkin once more distinguished himself by blowing up the gate of the chief Turcoman fortress, while under heavy fire, and emerged from the campaign with the rank of major-general and the cross of St. George, for valor. An admirable account of this Turcoman campaign has been written by the brother of the late Vassili Verestchagin, the painter, who went down with Makaroff in the *Petropavlovsk*. This younger Verestchagin was also on Skobelev's staff at Plevna, and he tells, with feeling, how Skobelev



GENERAL KUROPATKIN AT LIAO-YANG.

laughed at him because he "squealed" when he was wounded.

In 1890, Kuropatkin, who had gone back to his professorship of military statistics, was appointed governor of the great Trans-Caspian region, some two hundred thousand miles in extent, and was also promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general. In Trans-Caspia, General Kuropatkin pursued the policy which has brought fame to Lord Cromer, in an area just double that of Trans-Caspia, in Egypt. Both seized the idea that a main duty of the government is to husband and increase the material resources of the country governed, developing it as a wise business man develops a productive enterprise, and looking for results of the same kind. Lord Cromer is seven years older than Kuropatkin, and began his work seven years earlier; the territory he administered was about twice as large, but otherwise there is a close parallelism between the methods of the two men and the results they attained. From Trans-Caspia, General Kuropatkin went to the war office, at St. Petersburg, first as acting,

then as actual, minister of war, and this post he held until his departure for the far East, last spring.

IN JAPAN AND MANCHURIA.

While minister of war, General Kuropatkin made a prolonged visit to the far East, going first to Japan and afterward to Port Arthur and Manchuria. He was preceded by Minister de Witte, who has written at length and admirably of Manchuria, but it is not certain that the memoirs of Kuropatkin have seen the light. He was in Japan in the spring of 1903, and was *fêted* and dined by the court, the ministers, and the generals. He visited the Japanese garrisons, saw the recruits at drill, and, we may well believe, gained some insight into the methods and efficiency of the Tokio general staff.

It is difficult to speak with certainty on a subject about which General Kuropatkin was naturally very reticent; but many indications point to the fact that he was from the outset strongly against the present war. He was at no time on cordial terms with Admiral Alexieff, and when Kuropatkin visited Port Arthur the relations between him and the viceroy were strained and formal. Alexieff held the extreme

naval view, that the Korean Peninsula, as it cut the Russian Siberian fleet in two, must inevitably become Russian territory, in order to give the Russian fleet a free passage through the Korean Strait. Alexieff made no secret of his views, and we cannot doubt that this extreme naval ambition aroused the antagonism of Japan. The Japanese had, however, decided that war with Russia must come, as early as 1896, when Russia drove them out of Manchuria; and as early as the spring of 1900, Japanese statesmen had made quite specific prophecies as to the conduct of the war, which have since been remarkably verified. It was, from the first, a question of incompatible ambitions, only to be decided by armed force.

General Kuropatkin's task has been immensely more difficult than his critics at first understood. The troops in the field were largely Siberian regiments, containing many Asiatics, and more invalids, who were victims of various Asian maladies. The first reinforcements were green troops, who, like General Orloff's division at Yentai, could not be trusted to stand fire. From these yielding materials, and with a very inferior commissariat, Kuropatkin had to form an army to meet Japan's war veterans, splendidly led, and with better rifles and greatly superior artillery. Kuropatkin's task was to hold them back indefinitely until he could get his army hammered into shape, adding such reinforcements as could gradually be brought in from Russia over the thousands of miles of the Siberian Railroad. But we may gain some idea of his achievement as Liao-Yang if we remember that in one hour, during the assault at Plevna already described, the Russians lost three thousand men, the greater part of whom were killed outright. At Plevna, the Turks had sixty thousand men. At Liao-Yang, the Japanese had probably three times as many, and the fighting was distributed over an immensely longer front. That Kuropatkin's losses should have been so slight is in itself the best praise that this great general could receive. Seven days' hard fighting advanced the Japanese army only some twenty miles on their road to Harbin, though they excelled the Russians in numbers, equipment, rifles, and artillery. The same Fabian policy is likely to be continued.

It is assumed that the Japanese will soon go into winter quarters and postpone further fighting until spring, but it must be remembered that they fought all through the winter of 1894-95 in their campaign against the Chinese. It is far more likely that they will push the campaign as vigorously through the winter as they did in spring and summer.



From the Illustrated London News.

A RECENT SKETCH OF GENERAL KUROPATKIN AT THE FRONT.

GENERAL NOGI, THE JAPANESE HERO OF PORT ARTHUR.

BY SHIBA SHIRO.

IT was a day in May. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, they say, had just expressed his imperial pleasure of honoring General Nogi with the highest honor that could be bestowed upon a fighting man of Nippon,—command of

insula. To General Nogi came the report that his eldest son, Lieut. Nogi Shoten, had fulfilled the high ambitions of the soldier of Nippon in dying and leaving his heroic memory engraved on the slope of Nanshan Hill. The general received the message, and said, simply: "I am glad he died so splendidly. It was the greatest honor he could have. As for the funeral rites over his memory, they might as well be postponed for a while. A little later on, they may be performed in conjunction with those to the memory of my second son, Hoten, and of myself."

To be the commander of Nippon's forces at Port Arthur is the greatest honor to which the dreams of a soldier of the Emperor can aspire. The fortress is full of sentimental interest to all the Nippon race.

Port Arthur stands at the extremity of the Liao-Tung Peninsula; like the point of a dagger, it thrusts itself out to sea and divides the Yellow Sea from the Gulf of Pe-chili. Across the mouth of this gulf to the south and facing it is the harbor of Wei-Hai-Wei. Not so rugged as Gibraltar, to which it has been likened over and over again, the hills which hem in the harbor of Port Arthur are quite as commanding as the fortress on the Mediterranean.

The strategic possibilities of Port Arthur are quite enough to make a military tactician dream like a poet; long ago, even the Chinese saw it, and, with the assistance of German military engineers, they fortified the place heavily. The fortress commands the waterway to Tientsin, Taku, and, naturally, to Peking. The master of Port Arthur,



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GENERAL NOGI, THE JAPANESE COMMANDER BESIEGING PORT ARTHUR.

the forces besieging Port Arthur. Cherries were abloom and Tokio was gay. On that same day came the news of the battle of Nanshan, telling of the sad and savage things that had come to pass at the neck of the Liao-Tung Pen-

insula. To General Nogi came the report that his eldest son, Lieut. Nogi Shoten, had fulfilled the high ambitions of the soldier of Nippon in dying and leaving his heroic memory engraved on the slope of Nanshan Hill. The general received the message, and said, simply: "I am glad he died so splendidly. It was the greatest honor he could have. As for the funeral rites over his memory, they might as well be postponed for a while. A little later on, they may be performed in conjunction with those to the memory of my second son, Hoten, and of myself."

with whiskers that seem to be utterly innocent of the arts of the barber or of the gracious office of the comb. The rugged strength and simplicity which are the striking qualities of the general's character throw about him a calm dignity.

Of the many services that General Nogi has rendered to his country, his work as governor-general of Formosa is most significant. The mountain tribes in Formosa had never been tamed by the Chinese. In the earlier years of Meiji, we had a difficulty with the natives of the island. They are fierce, and they are perfectly innocent of the principles of modern society. The position of a governor-general, therefore, after the occupation of the island by Nippon, taxed not only the fighting quality of a general,—he had to face, every hour of the day and night, the irregular and annoying savage tribes who carry on a perpetual guerrilla warfare. On the 6th of June, 1904, on the same day on which Togo, Nishi, Yamamoto, and others were promoted to high commands, Nogi was given the full rank of general.

The wife of General Nogi is the daughter of a Kagoshima Samurai, Yuji Sadamoto, a member of the House of Peers. So genial is her attitude, so thoroughly kindly her heart, that her friends have said of her that whenever you are in her company you dream of being upon the springtime seas. Withal, there is the dignity of the older-day type about her person that impresses you at once and makes you think of the loftiness of an autumn peak. At the beginning of the war, General Nogi had two sons, the elder Shoten and the younger Hoten. Shoten, the elder, was twenty-six years of age at the beginning of this year. He finished his course at the Military Academy in December of 1902. In June of last year he joined the first division, with the rank of second lieutenant. It was on a certain day in March, 1904. General Nogi was in his study, when his elder son presented him-

self and said: "I have the honor, father, to bid you good-bye. I am about to leave the city for Manchuria. Now that I am starting out on this expedition, I have not the slightest idea of coming back to you alive. I shall always pray for the health of our august mother. If I lose my life on the battlefield, I beg you, august father, to honor me with a word or two of commendation. Of course, you must also be on your way to the battlefield. Would you permit me to suggest that, although our battlefields may be far distant and different, we two should run a race for the distinction of arms in the cause of our country?" The son smiled; so did the father. Just at that point the younger son, Hoten, entered the room, and he heard the last suggestion of his his elder brother to his father. Bowing before them, Hoten said: "Brother, would you not allow me also to enter upon the race that you have just proposed? We shall see who will distinguish himself first, at any rate." General Nogi laughed outright, and said: "All right, boys; this race between the three is certainly interesting."

It has been said that General Nogi is a peculiar man. This is not meant for a compliment to him. On the contrary, it is meant to express the general opinion that General Nogi is void of the usual attainments and accomplishments of polite society of to-day. No compliment, however, could be more eloquent than this. As a product of the latter end of the nineteenth century, he is surprisingly devoid of the clever accomplishments of these overeducated days of ours. The simplicity of his character impresses one as if he had never known anything but the art of war. He does not seem to have, in the slightest degree, the cleverness of the modern man who utilizes every turn of events for his own selfish interest. He always emphasizes the importance of simplicity—the importance of abiding with the simple principles of ethics.



PANORAMIC VIEW OF PORT ARTHUR.

RUSSIAN POVERTY AND BUSINESS DISTRESS AS INTENSIFIED BY THE WAR.

BY E. J. DILLON.

[The following article was written at St. Petersburg in August. Dr. Dillon's familiarity with Russian conditions,—acquired by long residence in the empire,—was strikingly shown in his contribution to the April number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, entitled, "Has Russia Any Strong Man?"]

WHEN the present war broke out, Russia was slowly recovering from the effects of a serious industrial and agricultural crisis and entering upon a social and political struggle against government without responsibility and taxation without control. The ex-finance minister, M. Witte, had striven hard, and not unsuccessfully, to create a national industry, which should be exploited by and for the state, and parallel with this new departure the treasury was not only taxing heavily the country districts for imperial purposes, but was diverting the sources whence the provincial boards had theretofore drawn their funds into the general reservoir in St. Petersburg.

One of the salient results of this policy was the accumulated wealth of the government as contrasted with the chronic poverty of the people; another was the lavish expenditure on strategic railways and impregnable fortresses in the farthest extremities of the empire, as compared with the cessation of productive and needful outlay in Russia. The state was boasting of its wealth and extending its credit, while the peasants, who had mainly contributed to create that wealth, were almost penniless and generally underfed. The railways and the principal industries were conducted or controlled by the government, which thus became the chief employer of labor, while the workingmen were often not only not earning a "living wage," but were eking out an existence compared with which the happy-go-lucky lives of the serfs were luxurious. This abnormal state of things caused an outburst of opposition, the strength and extent of which surprised the ruling classes, and the late minister of the interior, M. von Plehve, was girding his loins for a struggle to the death with the malcontents, when war was declared and internal quarrels were largely absorbed by the duel with the foreign foe.

THE PARALYSIS OF COMMERCE.

But war has not merely brought about a truce between the two parties in the state; it has also intensified the evils which gave rise to the strug-

gle; and by the time it has come to an end, the combustible materials, to which the match is sure to be applied, will have increased tenfold. To take its most obvious, if less serious, aspect first. The government deemed it desirable to reduce expenditure on public works by \$68,119,615, and to devote these savings to the war fund. But as the state is the most important employer of labor, the chief purchaser of pig iron, rails, coal, etc., many works were closed in consequence, others were reduced to short hours, and tens of thousands of hands were thrown out of employment and turned adrift to make a living by begging or stealing. Thus, a blow was struck at all trade and commercial industry in the country. And simultaneously with this withdrawal of capital, another factor almost equally disastrous made its appearance: the railways which connect the Asiatic with the European half of Russia were transformed into purely strategic lines, along which soldiers, munitions of war, surgical appliances, food and forage, sisters of mercy, and ambulance corps were conveyed, ousting almost all private merchandise and paralyzing the enterprise of private firms. Western Russia being thus cut off from the eastern provinces, large stocks were left on the hands of middlemen or producers, who were unpaid for past sales, deprived of further orders, and confronted with bankruptcy.

MULTITUDES STARVING IN RUSSIAN POLAND.

One instance will show how this severance of communication between the two halves of the empire has been felt. Siberia usually purchases its industrial needs in the flourishing districts of Lodz, Warsaw, and Petrokoff, in Russian Poland, on the system of long-term credit. The outbreak of the war was followed by the suspension of payments for goods already received and the withdrawal of further orders. Small factories were simply wiped out in consequence. The larger industrial establishments shortened their hours of work by 20, 40, and 50 per cent., and dismissed a number of hands. The prices of food rose considerably,—meat from 5 to 9

per cent., and other kinds of provisions much more. Misery became more widespread, crimes increased perceptibly, and the pawnbrokers alone are doing a brisk trade. In Warsaw, soup kitchens are being opened by the Jewish community for needy members of their faith.

The industrial railway line of Lodz has cut down the number of trains running daily, which now carry only 50 per cent. of their usual freights, and in that district alone forty thousand men are without work. Haggard, emaciated, with unsteady steps, these first indirect victims of the war shamble through the thoroughfares, hungry and hopeless. Some drop down exhausted in the streets and are taken to the hospital, where their ailment is declared to be exhaustion by hunger. Others break into private houses in the light of day, sure of getting a mouthful of bread whether they succeed in robbing their neighbors or are arrested and sent to prison. Nearer to the center the distress is almost equally severe. In the town of Bielovodsk, about 1,800 able-bodied men were recently without any means of subsistence, and their late employers, who clubbed together to relieve their misery, subscribe about \$1,030 a week, which is wholly inadequate, and the number of the destitute is increasing. In Vitebsk, 3,600 artisans were breadless and the number in Riga, Libau, and other towns on the Baltic coast is proportionately large.

ALL CLASSES OF RUSSIANS AFFECTED BY THE WAR.

In Russia proper, the symptoms of the crisis are many and alarming. Even in the two capitals, St. Petersburg and Moscow, scarcity of money, stagnation of trade, bankruptcy, and a large increase of the contingent of able-bodied paupers, beggars, and thieves mark some of the most obvious consequences of the war, and as yet, unhappily, the high-water mark of destitution has not by any means been reached. From the Volga districts, formal petitions have been sent to the government for immediate relief. In Pavlov, a center of the steel industry, the principal works have cut down their output by two-thirds, while others have besought the state to cancel their arrears of debt. And from almost every part of the empire, from every class of the population, come dismal reports of the havoc made by the war. True, Russia comprises one-sixth of the terrestrial planet, and therefore admits of no generalizations, so that the harrowing condition of one village or hamlet cannot be predicated of every other. There are doubtless large districts, some firms, industries, and trades which actually profit by the war. But it remains none the less true that dis-

tress is widespread and intense. For to say nothing of the bulk of the population, among whom want is chronic, the wealthy people, now largely subscribing to the war fund, are forced to cut down their ordinary expenses, the struggling tradesmen and officials are hard set to keep their heads above water, and a growing percentage of the working classes have been thrust out of the ranks of self-supporting men.

THE UNENDURABLE BURDENS OF THE PEASANTRY.

And the peasantry, on whose Atlantean shoulders the weight of the empire ultimately rests, are, if possible, worse off still. For their hardships are older than the war, and were universally admitted to be unbearable before the first shot was fired. In another year, say the experts who know them best, they will be face to face with absolute ruin. The additional load which they must then carry will break their backs. On the one hand, the strongest and best of the villagers have been drafted off to the far East as food for Japanese cannon,—not always without strong manifestations of reluctance on their part or severe measures of coercion on the part of their superiors. And, on the other hand, the wounded and the crippled are gradually coming home to swell the ranks of the necessitous, for whom the community is obliged by law to provide. It is not generally known that the state, in addition to other forms of taxation, compels the peasantry, through their boards, or *volosts*, to maintain barracks for the troops, to bear the expenses of military conscription, to maintain convict prisons, to furnish escorts for convicts, to support soldiers disabled in active service, and to provide for their widows and children. Private families are virtually obliged to receive a certain number of wounded soldiers and tend them during their convalescence; the hospitals of the county districts must provide a number of beds for them while they are under medical treatment, and over and above these unexpected claims on their slender resources, they have had to contribute "voluntarily" to the Red Cross Society, the war fund, or the increase of the navy.

But the severest strain will be caused by paragraph 38 of the military code, which lays it down that the indigent families of private soldiers in active service must be provided for by the *zemstvos*, or communities, to which they belonged. Lodging and a small pension sufficient to keep body and soul together must be found for them, and paltry though this contribution is, it will tell terribly on a population whose members cannot afford to buy meat, milk, or even cabbage for their principal daily repast. The

incidence of this taxation will be all the more seriously felt that no provision has been made in the past for executing it. Indeed, it is doubtful whether any could have been made, seeing that the sources of local revenue have nearly all been tapped by the imperial treasury, and the provincial boards cannot create new ones. So heavily burdened are the tillers of the soil already that their arrears of debt to their own *zemstvos* went on increasing year after year until, last May, the government resolved to take them over and to pay them to the *zemstvos* within the next five years. This measure, for which the finance minister deserves full credit, will burden the treasury with about \$1,287,000 yearly.

A THREATENED SHORTAGE OF GRAIN.

Further legislation on analogous lines is sorely needed at present, inasmuch as in certain districts of Russia the harvest threatens to disappoint the hopes of the husbandmen. Thus, according to the official forecast recently published, the winter crop of rye will be positively bad throughout the usually fertile districts of Bessarabia, and unsatisfactory in those of Poltava. The oats, too, have failed in Bessarabia, while the yield in Chernigov, Vitebsk, and Warsaw will be much below the average. Barley will produce nothing in Bessarabia; and judging by the reports received by the ministry, very little in the vast districts of Kherson, Vitebsk, Lomza, and Petrokoff. The winter crop of wheat is practically *nil* in Bessarabia and Elizabethgrad, and unsatisfactory in Poltava and portions of Kharkov, Chernigov, and Vitebsk, while spring wheat promises no return in Bessarabia and not much in Kherson. It would, of course, be wrong to confound even that large stretch of territory with the empire of Russia, where the harvest, if not abundant, bids fair to prove, at least, satisfactory. Nor should it be forgotten that partial famines are invariably allowed for in the budget estimates of every Russian finance minister. Still, it is an axiom that every little tells when the distress is general, and it is hardly too much to affirm that it was never more widespread in Russia than it is at the present time.

A CONDITION OF IMPOVERISHMENT.

For it is now admitted by almost all whose opinion carries weight in that empire that for the past fifteen years taxation, which has far more than doubled, has increased hand in hand, not with national prosperity, but with national impoverishment. That statement involves a most serious charge against the government, and it would be unpardonable in a foreigner to

accept and propagate it, were it not put forward calmly, deliberately, and repeatedly by ministerial commissions and fully borne out by private investigations and official statistics. To quote one of these investigators:

For people who do not reside in the country, and are unable to ascertain the facts for themselves, a sharply outlined picture of the general destitution is drawn by the official data of the regular growth of arrears, of the progressive increase of homesteads lacking horses and cows, of the sums spent by the government and by private individuals for the relief of the hunger-stricken, of the expeditions of the Red Cross Society to cope with scurvy and hunger-typhus, and, lastly, by the symptoms of degeneration which lowered the standard of chest and size measurement in determining the fitness of recruits for military service.*

The principal government official in the Mensevinsk district reported to his superiors that the universal pauperism of the country is made manifest to all by the whole course of the peasant's life. "If we look at what the peasant eats, we are struck by the absence of meat, of milk, and of eggs. He supports himself solely on black bread and brick tea, and has not always even these articles of food. This nourishment is particularly harmful to the children. Yet millions of pood† of corn and millions of eggs are exported abroad. . . . It is not to be supposed that the peasantry are unaware of the nutritious qualities and the taste of meat, milk, eggs, and other articles of food. The truth is, that these comestibles are beyond their reach."‡ Mensevinsk, it is true, is but one district, and the Russian Empire is one-sixth of the globe: but I have before me reports from twenty-nine states, or "governments," which agree in essentials with this description.

FROM ONE-SIXTH TO ONE-THIRD OF THE PEASANT'S INCOME TAKEN BY THE STATE.

Taxation under such conditions seems to border upon severity, and that the state should spend milliards of dollars upon political and strategic railways and hoard hundreds of millions, which are not needed either for the ordinary or the extraordinary expenditure, while the population which furnished these sums is living on black bread and brick tea, is an instance of amazing shortsightedness with which one can hardly credit the Russian Government. Yet the facts are established. It has often been affirmed abroad that taxation per head of

* Memoir of N. N. Kovaleffsky, member of the government committee of Kharkov.

† A pood is about thirty-six English pounds.

‡ *St. Petersburgskaya Vedomosti*, November 12, 1902.—The name of the official is Krassoffsky, and his report was published in the journal mentioned above.

the population is much lighter in Russia than in most other countries, and the conclusion has been drawn that the subjects of the Czar are better off than those of his brother monarchs. But the comparison is misleading. The terms that should be compared are not the amount per head paid by the German or the Frenchman on the one side and the Russian on the other, but the total sum paid in taxes on the one hand and the yearly income of the taxpayer on the other. What percentage of his yearly income is taken by the state? Exhaustive data for forming an opinion on this matter have been very carefully collected by nineteen members of one of the most prosperous districts of the empire, the government of Moscow, such small items as half a cent for matches being included in their account, which errs somewhat on the side of moderation.

The average homestead, then, consisting of three male members and several women and children, has \$201 yearly income and \$199 annual expenditure. Over one-fourth of the outlay is spent on articles which are heavily taxed by the state, and the amount thus contributed to the government is: on alcohol drunk, \$10.82; on tea, \$5.35; on sugar, \$3.58; on calico prints, 95 cents; on petroleum, 77 cents; on tobacco, 15½ cents; and on matches, 10½ cents. The expenditures being underestimated, the amount that really goes in this indirect taxation is greater, but taking it as stated, it runs up to 12 per cent. of the entire yearly income of the peasant homestead. If we now add to that the direct taxes, which are \$11.58, the entire sum paid by the peasant to the state is about \$36.04 out of an income of \$201. And of this only some 15 per cent. finds its way back again in the form of government outlay on local needs. In another district of the Moscow government (that of Klin), the mean budget of the homestead is \$113.29, out of which \$38.57, or 34 per cent., goes toward helping the state to accumulate its free balance of several hundred millions.* "Private landowners, on the whole," we read, "make a certain profit, but as for the peasants, the budgets of the great bulk of them are balanced by a shortage which is covered partly by work which they do in other districts and partly by chronic failure to pay their direct taxes."

Those are concrete examples which are valuable because typical. They are rather understated than exaggerated, for very many districts are worse off. In the government of Saratov, for instance, there is a large district—that of

Balashev—the inhabitants of which deduct for taxes \$31.14 per homestead out of an average income of \$58.88, so that their imposts swallow more than half of the yearly earnings available for expenditure. As a matter of fact, the sum disposable for general expenditure is less than \$29.79 per homestead, and less than \$4.40 per head of the population. And it is out of this miserable pittance that the peasant has to pay for his clothing and boots, for the repairs of his hut and outhouses, for agricultural implements, and for live stock; he has, further, to pay off arrears of debts and interest on them; to lay something aside in case of fire, the loss of horses or horned cattle, and other accidents. And that represents only the average. In reality, the income and taxes are so unevenly distributed that the peasants are in even worse straits than those just described. At least 50 per cent. of the peasant population of the Balashev district have a great deal less than \$4.12 per head free remainder, and the individual lives in a state of chronic hunger.* "The economic state of the peasantry," writes the Klin District Committee, "is so straitened that further taxation is impossible without facing the risk of utterly ruining agriculture."

WHAT THE WAR IS COSTING THE TAXPAYERS.

And yet the government can hardly manage without further taxes, unless the expenses on army, navy, and railway-building are curtailed,—a measure which involves a radical change in Russia's foreign policy, and therefore the course of her domestic policy as well. For the war is a terrible drain on the financial resources of the empire. The savings of a number of years are being lavished in the span of a few months, after the lapse of which a check has to be drawn upon future economy. It is roughly calculated that during the first five months the needs of the campaign have swallowed up \$431,014,668. In order to realize what that sum means, one would do well to remember that it is nearly equal to all the receipts taken by the state from direct and indirect taxation. It is obvious, then, that one year of war must entail the expenditure of a sum equal to at least twice the revenue obtained by the treasury from all sources of taxation. But as the current expenses of the administration continue and have also to be met, it follows that during one year of war the government must spend three times more than it re-

* Official journal of the district committee of the Balashev District. See also Annensky. "The General Tendencies of the Financial Policy of the Empire in Its Bearings on the Needs of the Rural Districts," page 5. This work has not yet been published. I am quoting from the proof-sheets.

* Investigations of the Klin District Committee.

ceives from the population during that time. Such a terrible strain as this must give a severe shock to the financial system even of a wealthy nation; to a people already taxed to the utmost, and reduced to live on food less in quantity and worse in quality than is commonly held to be required for the support of normal, healthy life, the results must, in truth, be alarming.

Still, it would be a mistake to forget that so long as the war is being paid for out of the resources, present or future, of the treasury, the losses to the population are not acutely and immediately felt. It takes a certain time for their effects to reach the taxpayers. But when one of the results of the campaign is to draw the industry of the country into the whirlpool, then the hardship is indeed intense. And that, as we have seen, is Russia's case. For then, over and above the outlay on the military operations—which is provided for by the national savings—one must reckon the falling off in the national income, which cannot, unhappily, be spread out over a number of years, but has to be borne at once. The treasury may issue a loan in order to pay off, in the course of ten or twenty years, the expenses incurred through the war. But the population, which loses a large percentage of its earnings in consequence of the stagnation of trade and industry, possesses no such means of staving off the day of reckoning. When, therefore, a campaign directly cripples industrial and commercial enterprise, the effects are much worse than those which the war itself brings in the form of unproductive outlay.

RUSSIA'S FOREIGN LOANS.

Even here, however, it is easy to fall into exaggeration and paint a very somber picture of the ruin that awaits commercial, industrial, and agricultural Russia at the close of the war. As a matter of fact, reaction invariably follows action, and many of the industries which are now hampered or wholly paralyzed will very soon recover their buoyancy once the campaign is at an end. This is especially true of the factories and mills of Lodz, Warsaw, and generally of Russian Poland, where a great revival of trade and industry may be reasonably expected as soon as communications with Siberia have been resumed. Again, it should not be forgotten that the bulk of the money which the war is now costing is being spent in the empire, not outside, and that one of the chief causes of stagnation in trade and commerce is the absence of credit. And, lastly, in spite of her military reverses and internal impecuniosity, Russia's credit abroad is still excellent, and the difficulty in the way of a new loan is less the paucity of would-

be creditors than the too-favorable conditions on which the minister of finance insists on borrowing. But, for the moment, the finance minister is said to be contemplating the issue of treasury bonds to be employed as fiduciary currency, and he is generally believed to be disposed to employ the printing-press to the fullest extent permissible.

The one great danger in this connection is the likelihood of driving gold out of the country, and with it the present metallic standard. The stability of the latter depends upon the quantity of credit notes issued without being covered by gold, and still more by the state of the balance sheet. At present the notes in circulation are thus guaranteed to the extent of 120 per cent., although a considerable portion of this metallic stock belongs, not to the bank, but to the imperial treasury. But ever since 1892, the balance sheet has continued to be so unfavorable that in order to keep the gold standard unshaken a foreign loan has had to be floated every year, in spite of the fact that the budget showed a large excess of revenue over expenditure. Thus, in 1901 a loan of \$81,877,344 was concluded, which realized \$78,090,520; in 1902, another was issued in Germany of \$71,526,812, which brought in \$67,861,063; and in the following year a railway loan of \$33,407,501 was floated at 96, which yielded \$32,071,202. The total sum borrowed from abroad between the years 1900 and 1903, inclusive, was, therefore, about \$178,000,000.

Now, during those three years the gold reserves increased by almost the same sum,—namely, \$154,500,000,—while the favorable balance of trade in 1902-1903 proved insufficient to fill the shortage caused by the export of gold abroad to pay the service of former loans and the expenses of Russian tourists. It follows, then, that the "free balance," of which so much has been written of late, is made up mainly of the proceeds of foreign loans. And if borrowing was thus indispensable to the stability of the gold standard before the war, it can hardly be discontinued after peace, when the service of the foreign debt will have largely increased, and the solvency of the population will have considerably diminished.

HOW MUCH LONGER CAN THE PEASANT PAY TAXES?

But the greatest danger to Russian finances lies not so much in any of the transitory difficulties which the campaign against Japan has created as in the chronic poverty of the Russian people, who can no longer bear the burden of taxation. Forty years ago, when serfdom prevailed, the life of the average peasant was relatively tolerable. He dwelt in airy

rooms adequately furnished, and owned horses, cattle, sheep, and poultry. Wood for fuel could be had in abundance, and he possessed the needful materials to make his own clothing, boots, and bed coverings. To-day, he lives in the smoky room of a squalid hut, which he shares with any four-footed animals he may possess, and for all the expenses of bringing up his family, tilling his land, repairing his dwelling, and paying rates and taxes he disposes at most of eleven and one-half cents a day. On food for himself

and his wife and children he can generally, but not always, spend three cents a day. The difficulty, I do not say, of increasing the taxes of such a man, but of maintaining them much longer at their present level, is too manifest to need pointing out. It is in this chronic impoverishment of the bulk of the people, therefore, and not in the acute crisis brought on by the war, that those who know Russia best discern the source of the coming troubles, economic and other, which they foresee but cannot prevent.

ARE THE JAPANESE ABLE TO FINANCE A LONG WAR?

BY BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

[We have grown so accustomed to hear it said that Russia's resources in men, money, and natural wealth are unlimited, and Japan's comparatively small, that Baron Kaneko's article on Japan's financial strength, which follows, is peculiarly significant, when read in connection with Dr. Dillon's description of business and economic depression in Russia. Both men, as we show in another part of this issue of the magazine, are preëminently well qualified to speak.]

WAR is one of the most tragic incidents of human life, as well as one of the most terrible scourges of human society. It destroys vast numbers of individuals who would otherwise contribute productively to the world's progress; it wastes incalculable amounts of property and treasure which the nations engaged in that progress can ill afford to spare. But the financial and economic loss inflicted is only part of the evil to be deplored. War strikes at the roots of human happiness; it gathers in its victims long after the dead are buried and the wounded have returned to their homes; it passes on to populations of peaceful non-combatants, if in diminished degree, the burden of sacrifice whose full weight must be borne by the armies in the field. By making so many widows and orphans—by depriving so many wives of their husbands, so many children of their parents—it throws the evil of war into the future years, and, in a society which has survived the acute phases of conflict, it reduces to an appalling degree the reasonable expectation of life and its enjoyment.

It is for these and like reasons that I hate war, and with all my heart look forward to a time when the world will be at peace. I am especially in favor of every rational effort that may be suggested or devised for avoiding international quarrels and averting international strife. But as yet the world is imperfectly or-

ganized. Divisions, political and geographical, continue to exist between race and race, nation and nation, country and country; and these must be taken account of. It is still possible, moreover, even in our time, for weak nations, unable to protect their independence, to be swallowed up through the agency of aggressive war. Some peoples, as history shows us, have shrunk so much from hostilities, in the presence of a powerful enemy, as to surrender to it their integrity as separate nationalities. They have submitted to wrong and injustice through being either unable or unwilling to defend themselves.

But it is not among such peoples, and by such acts of self-surrender, that the Japanese are to be classed. Japan did not hesitate to assume all the responsibilities of a costly, a terrible, and a devastating war; nor did she take up arms without fully realizing the difficulties, as well as the duties, which the situation imposed upon her. Herself not unused to conflict in the past, she was keenly aware of the tragedies,—of all the suffering and sorrow,—that would result from the operation of her forces in the field. Yet she did not shrink. The moral ends she had in view made it impossible for her to count the cost. It was not only her right—it was also her duty—to maintain peace, justice, and liberty within her own realm; it was her bounden obligation, in the presence of foreign aggression, to conserve by every means available her

own integrity and independence as a nation. And these very ends, world-regarding as well as self-regarding, will always constitute an abundant as well as a glorious justification for the action she took.

Bravely, then, Japan entered upon the war; and with the same bravery she will carry it through to a successful termination. In saying this I do not speak unadvisedly or without reference to the facts. To such an extent have the Japanese distinguished themselves in the present war that we have never yet known them to be on the defensive. Not only have they won victories from the beginning,—they have everywhere taken the offensive against the Russian troops. Not once have they retreated; on the contrary, their campaign has been a perpetual advance. When we remember where the Japanese forces are to-day, we cannot help recalling the fact that throughout the war Japan has never at any time been brought into contact with an antagonist who may fairly be called formidable and dangerous to her. Meanwhile, the tactics pursued by our armies have won for Japan the admiration of expert military opinion everywhere; among Western critics especially, the quality and efficacy of Japanese strategy have become axiomatic. And if our tactics are generally regarded as models of what the conduct of war should be, no less attention has been given to the brotherly way in which we treat the Russian wounded and prisoners who fall into our hands.

Instead, therefore, of being anxious or appre-

hensive, we are happy in the task we have undertaken. But one of our critics has argued that Japan ought to give the world the spectacle of a decisive victory over the Russians, holding that if the campaign shall continue for two or three years the present physical struggle between the two nations will become a merely financial competition, resulting, after the exhaustion of their resources, in the withdrawal of our armies from Manchuria and of our garrisons from Korea,—in a victory, that is to say, for the Russians. Now, I am thankful to have that argument advanced, for it comes from one who criticises the financial condition of Japan with all fairness and sincerity. And in making my reply to it, I will say first of all that as in the present war the Japanese have determined to fight to the last man, so have they determined to spend their last penny in carrying it to a successful conclusion—that, it being the intention of the Japanese Government to vigorously prosecute military operations against Russia utterly regardless of financial considerations, that government will trust to the patriotism of its people to supply the resources needed for the war, and that it has no apprehension whatever as to the financial necessities either of the soldiers and sailors now fighting in Manchuria or of their families at home.

Now as to the finances of the war. A budget dealing with this subject was submitted to the Diet of the Japanese Government, and in March of the present year the Diet granted the necessary supplies, as follows:

DETAILS OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES IN CONNECTION WITH THE WAR.

Expenditures.		Receipts.				
		Public Loans, Exchequer Bonds, and Temporary Loans.	Funds Borrowed from the Special Accounts.	Funds Transferred from the General Account.		
				Receipts from Increased Taxa- tion and Tobac- co Monopoly.	Revenue Surplus.	Total.
A.—Expenditures for which the imperial sanction has al- ready been obtained.....	\$78,000,000	\$65,500,000	\$12,500,000
B.—Extraordinary war expendi- ture.....	190,000,000	140,000,000	15,000,000	\$31,000,000	\$4,000,000	\$35,000,000
C.—Reserve fund for emergencies..	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
Total.....	\$288,000,000	\$205,500,000	\$27,500,000	\$31,000,000	\$24,000,000	\$55,000,000

As war finances are of a different character from those dealt with by the ordinary budget, it may be well to describe them separately. I think it is better to copy here the financial statement of our government in connection with the war expenditures instead of giving my own explanation.

When the negotiations between Japan and Russia took such a turn as almost to cut off every hope of peace being maintained, it became imperatively necessary to make such prompt military preparations as would put Japan in a state of readiness for all eventualities, as well as, with equal expedition, to provide the requisite financial means. In accordance, therefore, with Article LXX. of the Japanese Constitution,

the imperial urgency ordinance was promulgated on December 28 of last year, as a special financial measure whereby authority was given for diverting the funds kept under special account, issuing exchequer bonds, and making temporary loans to meet expenditures incurred for military preparations. The total amount of expenditures which were sanctioned, in accordance with the above-mentioned imperial ordinance, was, up to the end of March last, about \$78,000,000. It is proposed to raise this sum by issuing exchequer bonds for \$50,000,000, diverting \$12,500,000 of the funds kept under special account, and making temporary loans for the balance. The loan of \$50,000,000 has already been floated with great success, the total amount subscribed by our patriotic people reaching four and one-half times the sum called for,—that is to say, \$225,000,000. As, moreover, the bonds were allotted chiefly among the lower and middle classes, it is evident that, in the event of another loan being raised at home, ample money will be forthcoming to provide for it. But the aforesaid urgency measure was no more than an expedient devised to meet an emergency. Peace having been broken last February, the Diet was convened in March, and gave its consent to the urgency financial measure of December, 1903. It approved various measures relating to war finance; it passed the budget for extraordinary war expenditures, and for the expenses involved in diplomatic and other state affairs connected with the present war. These expenses are to be met by the imposition of extraordinary special taxes, the provision including increased rates of stamp duty, the replacing of the leaf-tobacco monopoly (which was previously in force) by the monopoly on tobacco manufacture, which the government has long had in contemplation; the appropriation of funds under special accounts; public loans, exchequer bonds, and temporary loans. In order, at the same time, to prevent serious economic changes arising from the inflation of the currency by expediting the return of moneys paid out for war purposes, and to encourage thrift among the people, regulations were made for the issue of saving-loan-bonds by the Hypothec Bank.

SOURCES OF JAPANESE REVENUE.

In the above-mentioned extraordinary war budget, both revenue and expenditure amount

to \$190,000,000. The sources of revenue are as follows:

1. Increased receipts expected from the imposition of extraordinary special taxes, and from the establishment of the tobacco-manufacture monopoly, \$31,000,000.

2. The amount set apart out of the surplus of \$24,000,000; obtained by further retrenchments of the budget to be actually carried out in the present fiscal year; also through some funds having become unnecessary for ordinary naval and military expenditure, an additional \$4,000,000.

3. Loans from funds under special accounts, \$15,000,000.

4. Funds to be obtained by means of public loans, exchequer bonds, and temporary loans, \$140,000,000.

Besides this, there are the expenditures needed for diplomatic and other matters connected with national affairs, as they may be defrayed from time to time according to the requirements of the developing situation. The total reserve fund for the purpose has therefore been put at \$20,000,000, to which it has been decided to set apart the balance of the surplus of \$24,000,000 remaining after deducting the \$4,000,000 which is to be appropriated for war expenditures.

In regard to war finance, let me say here that the aforesaid special war expenses are, for the purpose of adjustment, being put under the special account.

As the revenue belongs by its nature to the general account, the supplementary budget for the present fiscal year has, for the adjustment of its account, been adopted simultaneously with the extraordinary war budget. I shall here give the items under which, by the supplementary budget, the government will obtain special revenues, as follows:

REVENUE.		Extraordinary Special Taxes.	
I. Taxes.....			\$25,057,398.50
A.—Land tax.....		\$11,968,106.50	
B.—Income tax.....		2,643,657.50	
C.—Business tax.....		2,518,099.50	
D.—Tax on liquors.....		89,242.00	
E.—Soy tax.....		569,476.00	
F.—Sugar excise.....		4,106,191.00	
G.—Mining tax.....		39,557.50	
H.—Tax on bourses.....		266,423.00	
I.—Tax on <i>saké</i> exported from Okinawa Prefecture.....		2,699.00	
J.—Customs duties.....		1,165,316.50	
K.—Consumption tax on woolen textile.....		1,099,330.50	
L.—Consumption tax on kerosene oil.....		619,299.50	
II. Stamp receipts: A.—Stamp receipts.....			1,810,398.50
III. Receipts from public undertaking: A.—Tobacco-manufacture monopoly.....			4,233,142.50
Total.....			\$31,100,989.50
EXPENDITURE.			
A.—Extraordinary war expenditures transferred to special account...		35,000,000.00	
B.—Emergency reserve fund.....		20,000,000.00	
Total.....			\$55,000,000.00

As to the receipts from the imposition of increased taxes, and from the tobacco-manufacture monopoly, which are among the sources of revenue for the expenditures, it is considered advisable, for the convenience of their collection, to put them under the general account.

WHAT WILL THE WAR COST JAPAN?

As to the total amount of war expenditure, that obviously depends on the number of soldiers and sailors engaged; on the area of the field of operations, as well as on its nearness or distance from the home country; on the number of battles, and on the length of the war in point of time. Keeping in mind all these more or less indefinite factors, I find it impossible to indicate anything like the exact amount which Japan will need for the present war. Yet, judging from experience since the Crimean War, in the Austro-Italian War, the war in which Denmark was engaged, the Franco-German War, the Russo-Turkish War, and the Transvaal war, an approximate estimate may be given.

The average monthly expenditure in those wars, for an army of 100,000 men, ranged from a minimum of \$12,000,000 to a maximum of \$25,000,000, excepting that of the Austro-Prussian War expenses. In our own war against China, in the years 1894-95, we spent, every month, on the average, the sum of \$5,500,000. Since then, the price of goods has risen both in Japan and in Manchuria. The armies we employ in the present campaign are much larger than those we sent against the Chinese. What is more, being unable to utilize for the present war the organization and plan of operations which suited well enough for the campaign of 1894-95, we had to make completely new arrangements for the operations now in progress against the Russians. Taking, then, experience in Europe since the Crimean War, and our own experience in the war against China, it may be said that, were Japan to send 200,000 soldiers to Manchuria at the present time, their support for each month would cost \$12,500,000. We must also keep in mind the naval operations of the war; expenditure for this purpose will amount, per month, to \$3,000,000. (In the years 1894-95, we spent, every month, on an average, the sum of \$1,500,000.)

It thus appears that the war expenditure for the year beginning last April and ending next March will amount to \$186,000,000; and as the government's estimate of the war expenditure for the fiscal year is \$190,000,000, we shall have—my own estimate being correct—a surplus of \$4,000,000.

At the beginning of hostilities, the Japanese

Government had special expenditures which are no longer necessary. These were on such items as mobilizing of soldiers and sailors, the purchase of extra horses, guns, ammunition, provisions, and other material, the requisites of transport service, etc. Since June of the present year, our government has been, and will be, in receipt of revenue from the following sources and to the following amounts:

Bonds and Loans.		Taxes and Other Acc'ts.	Total.
1904.			
June	\$13,500,000	\$7,000,000	\$20,500,000
July ..	25,000,000	7,000,000	32,000,000
August.....	15,000,000	7,000,000	22,000,000
September.....	12,500,000	7,000,000	19,500,000
October.....	9,000,000	7,000,000	16,000,000
November.....	5,000,000	7,000,000	12,000,000
December.....	2,500,000	7,000,000	9,500,000
1905.			
January	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000
February.....	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000
March	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000

In addition to the revenue here indicated, the government of Japan has authority, as previously stated, to raise \$40,000,000. Now, as its fixed monthly revenue ranges all the way from \$9,500,000 to \$32,000,000, and as our war expenditure for this present fiscal year does not exceed \$15,830,000 monthly, it is obvious that Japan can easily support the financial burden of the war, and will be able, from its financial resources, to tide the country over any difficulty in the near future. Should hostilities continue into the next fiscal year, our government will prepare another war budget, and the Diet will grant all necessary supplies. Even before the war began, and before the Diet took action, the people of Japan did not hesitate to contribute everything that was needed.

ARE THE JAPANESE PEOPLE ALREADY OVERTAXED?

But it is said that, owing to the government having issued a large amount in national loans, the people of Japan are now under heavy financial burdens. It is argued that if, during the present war, the Japanese Government continue to create national debts, either in the home or in the foreign market, she will ultimately find herself in a position where it will be impossible for her to pay even the interest on the amounts of her indebtedness. With no other resources at her disposal, and with no mortgages to pledge in security on foreign loans, Japan, it is held, will in a very short time find her credit gone, not only in the foreign, but also in the home, market.

Now, not only is this critic of Japanese financial conditions over-severe in his attitude. He

cannot, in my opinion, know much of Japanese finance. Let us glance for a moment over the route which Japan has already traveled. From the year 1870, the date of our first national loan, to the date of the loan of \$150,000,000 for the war expenditure, issued the present year, the gross total of our loans has aggregated the sum of \$432,459,495.50 outstanding in foreign and home markets, a sum which in amount is about three times the national revenue of Japan.

A COMPARISON WITH OTHER COUNTRIES.

Now, what of other countries? France, for example, has a national loan more than eight times the annual revenue of that country; Italy has a national loan equivalent to seven years of its revenue; in the case of England, the national loan represents about five years of the government's income; with the United States, nearly four times the total revenue equals the amount of the national loan. The loan of Japan, reaching only three times the national income, being only \$8.64 *per capita* of its population, is, then, not a large, but a very small, amount when considered in relation to the proportions and *per capita*s which obtain in other countries. It can therefore be safely asserted that the Japanese loan does not constitute for the people of Japan anything like the heavy financial burden which some have supposed it to be.

A word more on this aspect of the subject. About ten years ago, when we carried on the war against China, in 1894-95, the revenue of the Japanese Government, including ordinary and extraordinary income, was \$49,085,014. But last year, 1903-04, our national revenue amounted to \$125,840,980.50,—three times, that is to say, what our revenue was ten years ago. This increase in the national receipts comes, of course, from the new taxes that have been levied by our government since the war with China. A large amount of it must be traced to the growth of Japan's industrial productivity, and to the increasing income of our people. It is well to bear in mind here the great development which has taken place in our agricultural area, as well as the widened territories of forest land which we now have under cultivation. Consider also the immense impetus which recent years have given to our marine industries, and the vast development which has occurred in Japanese mining and other industrial enterprises. All of which goes to show that if the government imposes new taxes, the people of Japan are not only ready, but will find it easy, to bear any burden which they may entail.

A few further figures will suffice to dispel any

doubt that may yet remain as to the prosperity of Japan and the ability of her people to meet even heavy financial expenditures. In 1894, the year of our war with China, our foreign trade, exports and imports, was of the value of \$115,364,020.50. Last year, our foreign trade had increased to \$303,318,980.50, an increase equal to about three times the average annual value of the trade for ten years past. Take, also, the facts regarding our stock, insurance, and banking companies, all showing the strides we have taken in commercial and business development. Eight years ago, in 1896, our stock companies, limited and ordinary partnerships, including agricultural, industrial, and commercial, and also transportation concerns, numbered 4,595, and had a capital amounting to \$309,611,974.50. In 1902, the number had increased to 8,612, and the capital to \$613,365,664. Meanwhile, there has been a large increase in the number and capital of the insurance companies, doing life, fire, marine, and carriage insurance business. The past ten years have also seen a considerable development of railway companies and bourses, as well as of the business of many other companies, private as well as public, including that of steamship companies, with an accompanying increase in the number of steam and sailing vessels flying the Japanese flag.

DEVELOPMENT OF JAPANESE BANKING.

I now come to the banking business of Japan. In 1894, the Japanese banks numbered 865, with an authorized capital amounting to \$60,977,290. In 1902, the number had increased to 2,324, and their capital to \$262,558,515. The total amount of deposits in these banks increased from \$146,647,140 in 1894 to \$1,494,447,454.50 in 1903. These figures show an enormous development of the banking business of Japan. Related to this are the figures dealing with the monetary situation. In 1894, the total amount of the coin of Japan, including gold coin, silver yen, and the subsidiary silver, nickel, and copper pieces, reached the value of \$45,963,409.50. For the same year, the convertible bank-notes and paper money amounted to \$92,500,022. The grand total for 1894 of the money existing in Japan was thus \$138,463,431.50. In the year 1903, the Japanese coin, including gold coin, silver yen, and the subsidiary silver, nickel, and copper pieces, reached the total of \$89,779,715.50. At the present time, we have no paper money in Japan, but we have convertible bank-notes to the amount, in 1903, of \$206,239,997.

Signs of the increasing prosperity of Japan are also shown by the large amounts which have been dealt with and have passed through the

clearing houses in Tokio, Osaka, Kioto, Yokohama, Kobé, and Nagasaki—constituted, let me explain, not of all, but of the principal, banking establishments in those places. The amount of the bills cleared up in 1894 was \$126,570,652, while in 1903 this total had increased to \$1,793,805,625. The remarkable prosperity of Japanese business concerns, as revealed by the condition of the money market, is obvious.

"THRIFT, A PRICELESS NATIONAL POSSESSION."

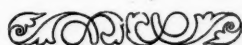
And now, in closing, let me sum up this review of the economic and financial conditions of Japan. I have said enough to show that in a comparatively brief space of time there has been an enormous increase in our industrial and commercial prosperity; that the national revenues have advanced in amount literally by leaps and bounds; that our financial condition and prospects, even though we are carrying on a costly war, were never so good as at present; and that, firmly guiding her ship of state through the problems of the moment, Japan has every reason to anticipate a smooth and prosperous voyage for the future of her national life. Already the faith of the Japanese people in that future is shown by the fact that when the government planned to issue exchequer bonds to the amount of \$50,000,000 they responded with the offer of four or five times that amount, and in place of the minimum rate of application, fixed by the government at \$47.50, showed their willingness to contribute a much larger sum. This of itself shows how patriotic the Japanese really are, but it also indicates something more; for as patriotic feeling cannot be manifested in such a matter unless there is enough money forthcoming, the taking up of bonds on such liberal terms reveals the existence of a people on whose thrift—a priceless national possession—the government of Japan can always depend. If it were necessary to say anything more in illustration of the industrial energy and thrift of the people of Japan, I should only need to mention the fact that the issue of \$50,000,000 exchequer bonds not only did not—as the government thought it might—

disturb the money market, but simply paved the way, after the bonds had been eagerly taken up, for a second issue of exchequer bonds by the Japanese Government to the amount of another \$50,000,000.

POPULAR SELF-SACRIFICING PATRIOTISM.

Observe, meanwhile, that in all this patriotism there is an element of voluntary retrenchment, not to say self-sacrifice. Not only have our people felt encouraged to engage more extensively in industrial enterprises,—they have freely given up what is known as "luxurious expenditure," and have resorted to not a few of the practical economies of life as a means of enabling them to contribute all the more to the expenses of the war. It is therefore in the self-confidence born of economic strength that the Japanese people have encouraged their government to prosecute this war to its conclusion utterly regardless of financial considerations and of what the operations may cost. They have determined, should it become necessary, to spend the whole of the national wealth in realizing the objects for which hostilities were begun. They have self-reliance enough to feel that should the war be prolonged for three, or even five, years more, Japan will be strong enough to respond to its most exacting demands upon her economic and financial resources.

I have spoken of war as one of the most terrible scourges of human society. But we do not "live by bread alone." We do not exist to hoard up money; nor do we pass our time on this planet for purposes of wasteful idleness or luxurious self-indulgence. We are in the world, if for anything, to exalt justice, to secure liberty, to preserve honor, to extend and enlarge self-respect; and especially to pursue all these ends in upholding, at whatever cost, the integrity and independence of our national life. And if we succeed in thus exalting justice, securing liberty, preserving honor, extending and enlarging self-respect, the blessings thus bestowed on the world, as well as on Japan, will abundantly recompense us for our sacrifices of human life, of treasure, and of property in the present war.



THE OPENED WORLD.

BY ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN, D.D.

[Dr. Brown, as secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, has recently completed a journey around the world, in which he made it his business to note especially all improvements in means and methods of communication and transportation. He is the author of "The New Era in the Philippines."]

THE fiftieth anniversary of the opening of Japan is an appropriate time for reminding ourselves of some of the stupendous changes that have taken place in recent years, changes that have powerfully affected all other nations as well as Japan, though perhaps not in the same degree. It is startlingly significant of these changes that Russia and Japan, nations 7,000 miles apart by land and a still greater distance by water, are able in the opening years of the twentieth century to wage war in a region which one army can reach in four weeks and the other in four days, and that all the rest of the world can receive daily information as to the progress of the conflict. A half-century ago, Russia could no more have sent a large army to Manchuria than to the moon, while the few wooden vessels that made the long journey to Japan found an unprogressive and bitterly anti-foreign heathen nation, with a law still on its statute books providing that if the Christian's God himself should set foot on her territory, he should pay for his temerity with his head.

Nor were other far-Eastern peoples any more hospitable. China, save for a few port cities, was as impenetrable as when, in 1552, the dying Xavier had cried, "O rock, rock! when wilt thou open?" Siam excluded all foreigners until the century's first quarter had passed, and Laos saw no white man till 1868. The handful of British traders in India were so greedily determined to keep that vast peninsula a private commercial preserve that as late as 1857 a director of the East India Company declared that "he would rather see a band of devils in India than a band of missionaries." Korea was rightly called "the hermit nation" until 1882; and as for Africa, it was not till 1873 that the world learned of that part of it in which the heroic Livingstone died on his knees, not till 1877 that Stanley staggered into a West Coast settlement after a desperate journey of nine hundred and ninety-nine days from Zanzibar through Central Africa, not till 1884 that the Berlin Conference formed the International Association of the Congo guaranteeing that which has not yet been realized, "liberty of conscience" and "the free and public exercise of every creed." Even in

America, within the memory of men still living, the white-topped "prairie-schooner" needed at least six months for the overland journey to California. Hardy frontiersmen were fighting Indians in the Mississippi Valley, and the bold Whitman was "half a year" in bearing a message from Oregon to Washington City.

So swiftly have the changes come in recent years, and so quickly have we adapted ourselves to them, that it is difficult to realize the magnitude of the transformation that has been achieved. It is only seventy years since the Rev. John Lowrie, with his bride, and Mr. and Mrs. Reed, rode horseback from Pittsburgh through flooded rivers and over the Alleghany Mountains to Philadelphia, whence it took them four and a half months to reach Calcutta. We can now ride from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia in eight hours, and to Calcutta in twenty-two days. The journey across our own continent is no longer marked by the ox-cart, the camp-fire, and the bones of perished expeditions. It is simply a pleasant trip of less than a week, and in an emergency, in August, 1903, Henry P. Lowe traveled from New York to Los Angeles, 3,241 miles, in seventy-three hours and twenty-one minutes. When the Rev. and Mrs. Calvin Mateer and the Rev. and Mrs. Hunter Corbett went to China, in 1863, they were six months in reaching Chefu, and the voyage was so full of hardships that two of the members of the little party never fully recovered from its effects. But when, in 1902, Dr. Mateer returned on furlough, he reached New York in one month, after a comfortable journey through Siberia. The Atlantic Ocean is now crossed in five days, and the wide Pacific in twelve.

No waters are too remote for the modern steamer; its smoke trails across every sea and far up every navigable stream. Ten mail steamers regularly run on the Yenisei, while the Siberian Obi, flowing from the snows of the Little Altai Mountains, bears three hundred and two steam vessels on various parts of its 2,000-mile journey to the Obi Gulf, on the Arctic Ocean. One may now go from Glasgow to Stanley Falls, in Africa, in forty-three days. Already there are forty-six steamers on the Upper Congo, and the railroad running northward from Cape Town

is being pushed so rapidly that the British Association for the Advancement of Science has been invited to meet, in 1905, at Victoria Falls. Within a few years, the Englishman's dream will be realized in a railroad from Cairo to the Cape. Already the distance is half covered. Uganda is reached by rail, and sleeping and dining cars safely run the 575 miles from Cairo to Khartum, where, only five years ago, Kitchener fought the savage hordes of the Mahdi.

THE LOCOMOTIVE IN THE FAR EAST.

Japan, which, fifty years ago, did not own even a jinrikisha, now has 4,237 miles of well-managed railroad, while India is gridironed by 25,373 miles of steel rails, which carry 195,000,000 passengers annually. Railways are paralleling the Siamese Menam as well as the Nile and the Congo, and one can ride on them from Bangkok northward to Korat and westward to Petchaburee. In Korea, the line from Chemulpho to Seoul is connected with lines under construction both southward and northward, so that within a few weeks the Japanese can transport men and munitions of war by rail from Fusan all the way to Wiju. As the former is but ten hours by sea from Japan, and as the latter is to be a junction with the Siberian Railway, a land journey in a sleeping car will soon be practicable from London and Paris to the capitals of China and Korea, and, save for the ferry across the Korean Strait, to any part of the Mikado's empire. We can already ride on a train along the banks of the Burmese Irawadi to Bhamo and Mandalay. The locomotive runs noisily from Jaffa to Jerusalem, and from Beirut to Damascus, the oldest city in the world. A projected line will run from there to the Mohammedan Mecca. Most unique of all is the Anatolian Railway, which is to run through the heart of Asia Minor, traversing the Karamanian plateau, the Taurus Mountains, and the Cilician valleys to Haran, where Abraham tarried, and Nineveh, where Jonah preached, and Babylon, where Nebuchadnezzar made an image of gold, and Bagdad, where Harun-al-Rashid ruled, to Koweit, on the Persian Gulf.

AMERICAN ENGINES AND BRIDGES EVERYWHERE.

The alert business men of the United States are aiding this development and seeking their share of the resultant profit. In a single month, forty-five American engines have been ordered for India. The American locomotive is to-day speeding across the steppes of Siberia, through the valleys of Japan, across the uplands of Burma, and around the mountain sides of South America. "Yankee bridge-builders have cast up a

highway on the desert where the chariot of Cambyzes was swallowed up by the sands. The steel of Pennsylvania spans the Atbara, makes a road to Meroe," and crosses the rivers of Peru. Trains on the two imperial highways of Africa—the one from Cairo to the Cape and the other from the Upper Nile to the Red Sea—are to be hauled by American engines over American bridges, while the "forty centuries," which, Napoleon Bonaparte said, looked down from the pyramids, see not the soldiers of France but the manufacturers of America. Whether or not we are to have a political imperialism, we already have an industrial imperialism.

According to Walter J. Ballard, the aggregate capital invested in railways at the end of 1902 was \$36,850,000,000, and the total mileage was 532,500, distributed as follows:

	Miles.
United States.....	202,471
Europe.....	180,708
Asia.....	41,814
South America.....	28,654
North America (except United States).....	24,032
Australia.....	15,649
Africa.....	14,187

TO-DAY'S TOUR AROUND THE WORLD.

Jules Verne's story, "Around the World in Eighty Days," was deemed fantastic in 1873. But in 1903, James Willis Sayre, of Seattle, Washington, traveled completely around the world in fifty-four days and nine hours, while the Russian minister of railroads issues the following schedule of possibilities when the Trans-Siberian Railroad has completed its plans, and, he might have added, the Japanese have given their consent:

	Days.
From St. Petersburg to Vladivostok.....	10
From Vladivostok to New York.....	14½
From New York to Bremen.....	7
From Bremen to St. Petersburg.....	1½
Total.....	33

As for the risks incident to such a tour, it is significant that for my own journey around the world, a conservative insurance company, for a consideration of only \$50, guaranteed to indemnify me against injury to the extent of \$50 a week, and in case of death to pay my heirs \$10,000. And the company made money on the policy, for in a journey of over fifteen months, in which I used not only the railways of India and Japan, but the ponies and chairs of Korea, the carts and mule-litters of China, the river-boats of Siam, the elephants of Laos, all sorts and conditions of ocean and coasting vessels, with alleged possibilities of almost every description,—from the cholera of Bangkok and the plague of the Punjab to the Boxers of Chi-li, the

robbers of the Turkish mountains, the tigers and snakes of the Indo-China jungles, and the scorpions and centipedes of Chiengmai,—I met with neither illness nor accident, nor mishap of any kind. With a very few unimportant exceptions, there are now no hermit nations, for the remotest lands are within quick and easy reach.

THE TELEGRAPH GIRTS THE EARTH.

And now electricity has ushered in an era more wondrous still. Trolley cars run through the streets of Seoul and Nagoya. The Empress-Dowager of China wires her decrees to the provincial governors. Telegraph lines belt the globe, enabling even the provincial journal to print the news of the entire world during the preceding twenty-four hours. We know to-day what occurred yesterday in Tokio and Beirut, Shanghai and Batanga. The total length of all telegraph lines in the world is 4,908,921 miles, the nerves of our modern civilization. It is not merely that Europe has 1,764,790 miles, America 2,516,548 miles, and Australia 277,479 miles, but that Africa has 99,409 miles and Asia 310,685 miles.

I found the telegraph in Japan and Korea, in China and the Philippines, in Burma, India, Arabia, Egypt, and Palestine. Camping one night in far-northern Laos, Siam, after a toilsome ride on elephants, I realized that I was 12,500 miles from home, at as remote a point, almost, as it would be possible for man to reach. All about was the wilderness, relieved only by the few houses of a small hamlet. But walking into that tiny village, I found, at the police station, a telephone connected with the telegraph office at Chiengmai, so that, though I was on the other side of the planet, I could have sent a telegram to my New York office in a few minutes. Nor was this an exceptional experience, for the telegraph is all over Siam, as indeed it is over many other Asiatic lands. From the recesses of Africa comes the report that the Congo telegraph line, which will ultimately stretch across the entire belt of Central Africa, already runs 800 miles up the Congo River, from the ocean to Kwamouth, the junction of the Kassai and Congo rivers. A Belgian paper states that "a telegram dispatched from Kwamouth on January 15 was delivered at Boma half an hour later. For the future, the Kassai is thus placed in direct and rapid communication with the seat of government, and Europe is also brought close to the center of Africa. Only a few years ago, news took at least two months to reach Boma from the Kassai, and the reply would not be received under two months, and then only if the parties were available and the steamer ready to start."

The submarine cables aggregate 1,751 in number and over 200,000 miles in length, and annually transmit more than 6,000,000 messages, annihilating the time and distance which formerly separated nations. When King William IV. of England died, in 1837, the news was thirty-five days in reaching America. But when Queen Victoria passed away, in 1901, at 2:30 p.m., the afternoon papers describing the event were being sold in the streets of New York at 3:30 p.m. of the same day. As I rose to address a union meeting of the English-speaking residents of Canton, China, on that fateful September day of 1901, a message was handed me which read, "President McKinley is dead." So that, by means of the submarine cable, that distant company of Englishmen, and Americans bowed in grief and prayer simultaneously with multitudes in the home land. Not only Europe and America, but Siberia and Australia, New Zealand and New Caledonia, Korea and the Kameruns, Burma and Persia, are within the sweep of this modern system of intercommunication. President Roosevelt gave a significant illustration of the perfection of the system when, on the completion of the new trans-Pacific cable between San Francisco and Manila, July 4, 1903, he flashed a message around the earth in twelve minutes, while a second message, sent by Clarence H. Mackay, president of the Pacific Cable Company, made the circuit of the earth in nine minutes.

THE CABLE AND THE WIRELESS TELEGRAPH IN THE PRESENT WAR.

The war between Russia and Japan teems with illustrations of the possibilities of the new era that has been inaugurated. A generation ago, months would have elapsed before tidings from Manchuria or Korea could have reached America. But to-day the problem that is perplexing the rival commanders is not how to send reports abroad, but how to prevent war correspondents from prematurely publishing them. It requires all the power and determination of the Russian and Japanese censors to keep the whole world from instantly knowing every detail of the military and naval operations.

More significant still is the wireless telegraph—the latest and most remarkable development of electrical communication. Even now transatlantic steamers and warships are equipped with the necessary apparatus, and exchange greetings and information as to movements with one another and with friends on shore. Curiously enough, an Asiatic nation has been first to use wireless telegraphy in its most advanced scientific form. Japanese torpedo boats lay in the offing of Port Arthur, and by wireless mes-

sages informed battleships lying six miles away, and out of sight, how to vary their aim so as to make their shells more destructive. And, a little later, Admiral Togo trapped the Russian admiral by sending a few unarmored cruisers close to Port Arthur, calmly waiting twenty miles out at sea until they sent him a wireless message that they had decoyed the unsuspecting foe out of the harbor, and then racing in under every pound of steam to force Makaroff's flagship on a mine which had been skillfully laid for him the night before. What additional possibilities are involved in the wireless system of telegraphy we can only conjecture.

OUR INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE.

Commerce has taken swift and massive advantage of these facilities for intercommunication. Its ships whiten every sea. The products of European and American manufacture are flooding the earth. The United States Treasury Bureau of Statistics estimates that the value of the manufactured articles which enter into the international commerce of the world is \$4,000,000,000, and that of this vast total the United States furnished \$400,000,000, its foreign trade having increased over 100 per cent. since 1895. American goods of all kinds are invading Indian markets, and are very popular. Our rifles are favorites for hunting and for defense. The American sewing-machine is everywhere. American tools, boots, and shoes are more and more appreciated. A well-boring outfit ordered from Waterloo, Iowa, is arousing great interest in a land which largely depends upon irrigation. Persia is demanding increasing quantities of American padlocks, sewing-machines, and agricultural implements. German, English, and American firms are equipping great cotton factories in Japan, and Russian and American oil tins are seen in the remotest villages of Korea.

AMERICAN SEWING-MACHINES AND BICYCLES IN SIAM.

Strolling along the river-bank, one evening, in Paknambo, Siam, I heard a familiar whirring sound, and entering, found a Siamese busily at work on a sewing-machine of American make. Nearly five hundred of them are sold in Siam every year, while a single American factory sent sixty thousand of its sewing-machines to Turkey last year. When I left Lampoon, Laos, a native followed me several miles on an American bicycle. There are thousands of them in Siam. His Majesty himself frequently rides one, and his Royal Highness Prince Damrong is president of a bicycle club of four hundred members. Forty thousand dollars' worth of American lamps

were bought by the Siamese last year, and I might add similar illustrations regarding American flour, steam and electrical machinery, wire, cutlery, and drugs and chemicals.

And these are only a few illustrations of the changes that are taking place all over the world. "The swift ships of commerce," says Dr. Josiah Strong, "are mighty shuttles which are weaving the nations together into one great web of life. True, there has been commerce since the early ages, but caravans could afford to carry only precious goods, like fine fabrics, spices, and gems. These luxuries did not reach the multitude, and could not materially change environment. But modern commerce scatters over all the world the products of every climate in ever increasing quantities."

"THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH."

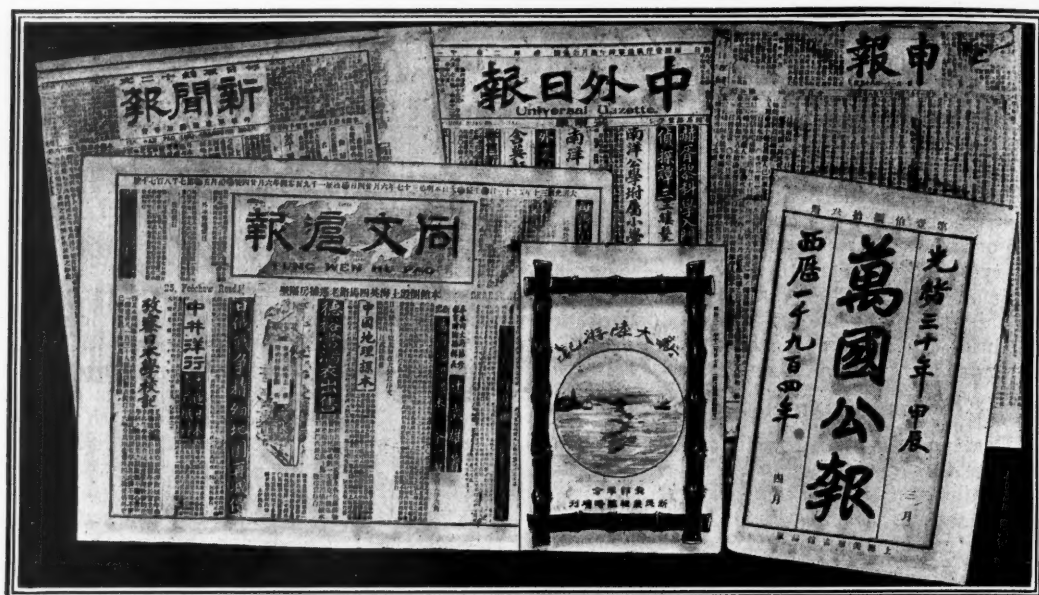
It is, therefore, too late to discuss the question whether the character of Asiatic nations is to be changed. The natives themselves realize that the old days are passing forever. India is in a ferment. Japan has already leaped to world-prominence. The power of the Mahdi has been broken and the Sudan has been opened to civilization. The King of Siam has made Sunday a legal holiday, and is frightening his conservative subjects by his revolutionary changes. China is slowly but surely undergoing a mighty transformation, while Korea is changing with kaleidoscopic rapidity.

"The rudiments of empire here
Are plastic yet and warm;
The chaos of a mighty world
Is rounding into form."

Whereas the opening years of the sixteenth century saw the struggle for civilization; of the seventeenth century, for religious liberty; of the eighteenth century, for constitutional government; of the nineteenth century, for political freedom, the opening years of the twentieth century are witnessing what Lowell would have called

"One death-grapple in the darkness 'twixt
Old systems and the Word."

The tides of modern life are surging into the most distant lands. All barriers between nations are crumbling. The races are being drawn together by the mighty cords of common knowledge and common interest. Each nation influences to a greater or less degree all the others, and is in turn influenced by them. No man knoweth what the final outcome will be, but it is clear that we are on the threshold of a stupendous movement which may affect the future of the whole human race.



SOME PROMINENT CHINESE PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN CHINA.

LEARNING being the key to social position and political power in China, as exemplified by the system of public examinations in vogue for centuries, it may be taken for granted that the Chinese give much time to reading. Indeed, with scholars this is a matter of necessity. The selection of officials by the system of civil examinations places such an immense premium on book learning that parents of the humblest means never fail to give their sons some schooling to enable them to read—if nothing higher be attempted—for their future betterment.

What the Chinese read is as varied as the grades of society and the intellectual capacity of Chinese individuals. What do the officials and scholars read? What do the common people read? What do the women read? What these classes read depends upon their political opinions and religious beliefs. Moreover, there is the choice between the vast field of native literature, the Western learning translated and published in books, and the magazines and periodicals, besides the ever-increasing number of newspapers.

The official class and those scholars who intend to enter official life, on account of the keen competition and stringent requirements in the state examinations, devote very little time to light literature. Their days are mostly spent

on the thirteen classics, on Chinese history, poetry, jurisprudence, essays, practical subjects bearing on the administration of the government, and the biographies and official dispatches of eminent statesmen and their collected works. The more progressive element read translated works on Western geography, history, education, international law, physics, mathematics, astronomy, electricity, geology, irrigation, military science, gunnery, travel, the records of Chinese embassies to the West, consular reports, and biographies of European and American statesmen and reformers. Herbert Spencer's "Education," the lives of Washington, Grant, Peter the Great, Napoleon, Kossuth, Bismarck, Gladstone, and the reformers of Italy and Japan are all within the reach of the reading public.

Works of fiction are not considered literature in China. A Chinese scholar would be as much ashamed of acknowledging himself the author of a novel as an English gentleman in the days of Shakespeare would in publicly confessing to the authorship of a play. The Chinese equivalent for the term novel is *Siao Shuo* (Small Talk), and one who writes a novel is regarded as a "trifler," lacking that gravity becoming a dignified scholar. Nevertheless, some of our most popular novels and stories, such as the "Tsz-Pu-Yu," "Liao-Chai," "Yuet-Wei-Tso-Tong," and

"Hung-Lou-Mung" were the productions of learned scholars and eminent statesmen, who prided themselves on their works of imagination. The Chinese will read anything so long as the style is good and the plot well sustained.

Chinese novels are divided into (1) political or historical novels,—those dealing with usurpation and court intrigue; (2) novels of love and romance; (3) religious novels,—those dealing with gods, goddesses, and superstition; (4) novels of adventure and brigandage.

Of the first group, "San Kwo" is undoubtedly the favorite. It is an historical novel describing the war of "Wei, Shu, and Woo" (Three Kingdoms), A.D. 220-263. The "Lieh-Kwo" (Warring States), B.C. 722-255, deals with the exciting times of feudalism, covering the period between the eighth century and the consolidation of the empire under the first emperor, who built the great wall. The "Hsi Han" (Western Han) describes the accession of the Han dynasty, B.C. 206-A.D. 23. The "Tung Han" (Eastern Han), A.D. 25-220, deals with the decline of the same. The "Yo Fei Chuan" treats of the life and campaigns of Yo Fei, the Chinese general who opposed the Kin Tartars, who were subsequently subdued by Genghis Khan. These historical novels are read far more extensively by the masses than real histories which treat of the same period. This is so because the style of the novels is flowing and picturesque, the descriptions are intensely vivid, and every page is filled with surprising incidents.

Of the second group, or novels of romance, the best known are the "Tieh Chung Yu" (Jade and Iron), depicting the love of two young people, almost platonic in its purity; the "Tsai Shang Yuan" (Destined to Wed Again), a metrical romance full of plot and fine description; the "Yu Chiao Li" (Beautiful Cousins), two young ladies whom a student loved and married; the "Erh Tou Mei" (Twice-Flowering Plum Trees); the "Ping, Shan, Leng, You," which are the names of four young people who loved and married; and "Hung Lou Meng" (Dreams of the Red Chamber), which is considered a work as touching the highest point of development reached by the Chinese novel. This class of novels forms the favorite reading of the women of the upper classes.

Of the religious novels,—those dealing with gods, goddesses, and superhuman agencies,—the "Hsi Yu Chi" (Record of Travels to the West) is best known. It is based upon the journey of Hsuan Tsang, of the Tang dynasty, who went to India in search of books, images, and relics to illustrate the Buddhist religion. The "Shiu Shen Chi" (Battle of the Gods) is a

novel extolling the wonderful power and influence of the Taoist gods. It was written with the avowed purpose of rivaling the "Hsi Yu Chi" (Converts to Christianity). Catholics, especially, are not allowed to read such works, and instead read "Pilgrim's Progress," which has been well translated into easy Chinese.

Next in bulk to the novels of love and ro-

mance are the novels of adventure.

The "Shui Hu" is a work on the brigands of the twelfth century. Some of the situations are very laughable, and the work is valuable for the insight given of the manners and customs of that period; the "Ching Hwa Yuan" deals with a young graduate who, disgusted with the policy of the Empress Woo Hou



MR. LIANG-CHI-CHAO.

(The most famous living Chinese author and editor.)

(A.D. 684-706), went on a voyage of exploration. The "Shan Hai Ching" (Stories of Strange Lands) is on the order of "Gulliver's Travels."

Of the "plays" which are widely read may be mentioned the "Pi Pa Chi" (Story of the Guitar), which extols the virtues of filial piety and conjugal fidelity, and "Hsi Chang Chi" (Love-Making at the West Hall), and other novels which have been dramatized.

The collection of songs called "Yo Fu," the "Yuet Nao" (Popular Love Songs of Canton), the "San Fu Tan Ching" (Three Matrons' Complaint), and similar works help to cheer the monotonous lives of the Chinese women.

Among the collection of short stories, the best known is the "Liao Chai" (Strange Stories from a Studio), written between A.D. 1641-1679 by Pu Sung Ling, a disappointed scholar of Shan-tung. Foxes, ghosts, sprites, elves, and supernatural beings figure largely in these fascinating stories. "Tsz Pu Yu" (What Confucius Never Talked About) was written by Yuan Mei, a learned official, poet, and essayist of the eighteenth century. "Yuet Wei Tso Tong" (Pleasant Stories from a Private Study) was the work of the famous grand counselor, Chi Shiao Lan. The "Chin Ku Chi Kwan" (Marvelous Tales, Ancient and Modern) is a collection of forty stories by the members of a literary club. Collections of wit and humor and stories of the "Joe Miller" class are extensively read. In

this connection, "Yi Chien Ha Ha Shiao" (Read and Laugh), the "Yi Chien Yin Jen Shiao" (Be Moved to Laughter), the Shiao Chek To" (Side-Splitter), and "San Tsu Liao Chai" (Sparkling Wit and Humor) may be cited.

Among translated works are Æsop's Fables, "Vathek," "Night and Morning," and other good novels from the English, French, German, Russian, and Japanese. An immense amount



THE CHINAMAN (reading): "'The Japanese have taken the Russian positions.' . . . Would it not be more exact to say the Chinese positions?"—From *Pasquino* (Turin).

of Christian literature in the form of tracts and scientific pamphlets has been published by the different missionary societies and widely distributed, forming the bulk of reading matter for the Christian converts and the more inquisitive Chinese population.

Newspapers and illustrated magazines are Western innovations introduced into China within the last few decades. The oldest Chinese newspaper conducted on the European method is the *Hwa Tsz Yat Pao* (Chinese Mail), of Hongkong. There are printed in the same colony the *Chung Ngoi Shan Pao* (Daily Press); the *Chung Kwo Pao* (China), owned and conducted by the Chinese reform party; the *Shun Wan Yat Pao* (Daily News), and the *Shiang Po* (Commercial Record). In Canton, there were published, a few years ago, three or four dailies, but their tone was too liberal and caustic to suit the authorities, who suppressed all of them except the *Yut Pao* (Canton News).

The oldest and most influential Chinese paper published in Shanghai is the *Shen Pao* (Shanghai

News), owned by a European. It is well patronized by the conservative officials. The more liberal organs are the *Shin Wen Pao* (Shanghai Daily), the *Soo Poo*, or *Soo Chow* (Daily), the *Tung Wen Hu Pao* (Far East), and the *Chung Wai Jih Pao* (Universal Gazette). The *Wan Siao Pao* (Comic Daily) and *Hi Sio Pao* (Punch) are comic papers in the Shanghai vernacular, very popular with the masses.

In Peking are published the *Yu Cha Tieh Tsun* (Peking Gazette) and the *Kwo Chow Tieh Pien* (Court Circular), which contain the daily record of imperial edicts, memorials, and official reports. Their purpose is similar to that of all government gazettes. All officials and the foreign diplomatic corps take these. The *Peking Gazette* is, perhaps, the oldest paper of its kind in the world, having been founded in the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618-905). The *Shun Tien Shi Pao* (Peking Times) is under the management of a Japanese gentleman, and is devoted to the promotion of friendly feelings between Japan and China.

In Tientsin is published the *Chih Pao* (Chili News), which is decidedly a conservative organ. The *Ji Ji Shin Wen* (Daily News) is managed by a Japanese, and is liberal in tone. The *Ta Kung Pao* (Impartial) is a daily under the management of a Manchu, who is a Roman Catholic convert. It ranks among the most liberal of papers in China. The *Tientsin Young Man* is a paper printed in Chinese and English, under missionary auspices.

Among the most influential and widely read magazines is the *Wan Kwok Kung Pao* (Review of the Times), edited by the Rev. Dr. Young J. Allen, an American gentleman residing in Shanghai. The *Hwa Pao* is an illustrated magazine which publishes short stories. These are issued in Shanghai.

The *Shi Woo Pao* (Reform) and the *Ching Yi Pao* (Standard Magazine) are publications devoted to reform and politics. The former has been suppressed by the government and the latter is now published in Japan, together with the *Shin Wen Tsung Pao*, which is another name for the *Shi Woo Pao*. These are much read by the younger generation, who are liberals. The *Shi Shi Tsai Shin* (Peking Review), the *Ching Wha Pao* (Peking Vernacular Magazine), semi-monthly, and *Chi Mung Wha Pao* (Children's Illustrated Magazine), monthly, are recent publications of Peking.

CHANG YOW TONG.



THE WORLD'S CONGRESS OF GEOGRAPHERS.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

THE Eighth International Geographical Congress, which closed its sessions in America, on September 14, was smaller than most of these great meetings in Europe. This was to be expected. Never before have the leading geographers of the world, two-thirds of whom are Europeans, been compelled to travel so far to these quadrennial assemblages. The cost of participation was therefore unusually large; and it was very gratifying to the American management that the foreign attendance numbered about seventy-five persons, and among them those who are recognized as leaders in their respective geographical specialties. Their presence made the congress fully representative of the best geographical attainment the world over; and there is another reason why the congress will be classed among the most successful of the series.

The scientific outcome of these congresses is presented in the volumes containing the papers and transactions of the meetings. These volumes are highly prized, because they give the best fruits of the latest research of the world's specialists in geography. The professors of geography in the universities of Europe regard them as among the best works of reference, and continually use them in the lecture-room. Each congress is judged by the quality of its outcome; and it is not surprising to those who know the facts that the programmes carried out at the Washington, New York, and St. Louis meetings are regarded as equaling the results of any of the preceding congresses, and as surpassing them in some respects.

This is due to the fact that the American organizers had the coöperation, not only of the fine body of foreign specialists present, but also of many leaders who were not here. The papers sent by these absentees make a large and rich contribution to the total outcome. They include exhaustive papers by such men as Martel, the best known of the scientific explorers of caves; Sapper, the authority on the physical geography of Central America; Kan, who records geographical progress in the Dutch East Indies; Levasseur, the leading writer on economic geography in France; Rabot, Gautier, Lacointe, and many others, some of whom have illustrated their papers with new maps in colors, all ready for publication, while others surprised the American programme committee by sending their pa-



COMMANDER ROBERT EDWIN PEARY.

(The president of the Geographical Congress. Commander Peary has announced his plans for a final expedition in search of the north pole next June.)

pers in English, so that they may have a larger number of readers in this country. If the congress did not have the inspiration of their presence, it had some of the best work of these men.

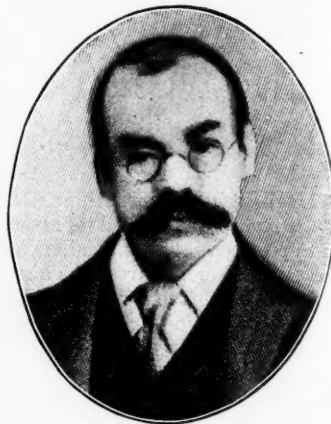
Naturally, those who came were welcomed with open arms, headed, as they were, by such men as Murray, Mill, and Oldham, of Great Britain; Drude, von Pfeil, Hassert, Marcuse, and Schmidt, of Germany; Penck, Oberhummer, and Erödi, of Austria-Hungary; Thoulet, de la Blache, Cordier, and Grandidier, of France, and other men of leadership or prominence in the various branches of geography; and to this body of experts were added many of our own leaders, such as Davis and Gilbert, in physiography; Peary, the honored president of the congress, in exploration; Harris, Littlehales, Bauer, Gannett, and many others who are ranked no higher at home than in Europe, though they have never,



Sir John Murray.
(President of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society.)



Professor Henri Cordier.
(President of the Geographical Society of Paris.)



Mr. H. R. Mill.
(Director of the British Rainfall Organization.)

DISTINGUISHED FOREIGN DELEGATES TO THE EIGHTH GEOGRAPHICAL CONGRESS, HELD IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH.

numerically, been well represented at the European meetings.

The result was that every section into which the congress was divided was strong in men and in papers. Physiography, which deals with the genesis of the surface forms of the land, has never before received so much attention. Meteorology and oceanology brought out many notable papers. Volcanoes and earthquakes were treated chiefly by the Americans, who have given most attention to the remarkable phenomena of which the western world has recently been the scene. Our Washington scientific bureaus were especially large contributors to terrestrial magnetism, mathematical geography, and geographical technique. The geographical control of human and other forms of life was one of the topics nearly equally divided between foreign and American contributors. Exploration was a large section, but not a phase of new and commanding interest dominated it; in fact, there is no such phase of very recent development, excepting in the polar regions. Peary represented the Arctic in a very interesting lecture at St. Louis, but no representative of the latest Antarctic expeditions could be present. Only the polar areas and South America can supply to future congresses the days that have been set apart for the exclusive consideration of a single great phase of pioneer exploration, like the "Africa Day" in London.

These international meetings are an accurate reflection of the trend of geographical activity at the time they are held. No branch of geographical investigation is now attracting more

attention than the influence which environment exerts upon the distribution of population and the quality and extent of business enterprises. The result was that the recent congress gave far more attention than any of its predecessors to all sides of anthropogeography, including industrial and commercial development. There was not time to read all the papers in the section of economic geography. They covered a wide range, and are among the most valuable and timely contributions of the congress to the geographical interests of the day.

It was the influence of the sixth and seventh congresses that started the great and successful movement for the renewal of Antarctic research. The congress here urged the energetic continuance of efforts to reveal the still unknown regions throughout the polar area. Peary's expedition, next spring, may soon be followed by others, in view of the growing belief that there are still important land masses to be discovered north of the Arctic circle.

Favorable action was also taken with regard to the large project, now considerably advanced, of mapping the world on a uniform scale of 1:1,000,000, or nearly sixteen statute miles, to an inch; also on a considerable number of other plans designed to unify geographical effort and increase its efficiency, such as the statistics of population in countries without census, the nomenclature of the ocean-bottom, the rules for geographic names, earthquake investigation, and others. The resolutions of these congresses have always carried great influence, and have often achieved very important results.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

JAPAN'S PROBABLE TERMS OF PEACE.

BEFORE the outbreak of the war in the far East, seven prominent professors at the Imperial University of Tokio strongly urged the Tokio government, by petition, to take decisive action to protect Japan's interest in Korea and Manchuria against the aggression of



Collier's Weekly.

COUNT KATSURA.
(Prime minister of Japan.)

the Muscovite. They were distinguished as the "Seven Belligerents." The ultra-belligerent of these seven professors is without doubt Dr. K. Tomizu, professor of law in the Tokio Imperial University. From his pen has appeared an article entitled "Japan's Post-Bellum Demands," in the latest issue of the *Taiyo*.

CESSION OF THE EASTERN CHINESE RAILWAY.

According to Professor Tomizu, the cession of the Eastern Chinese Railway to Japan is of foremost importance. "This railroad nominally

belongs to a private corporation of Russia. But under this thin mask it is not difficult to recognize that the real *entrepreneur* is the Muscovite Government. The government stations soldiers to guard the route, and appoints important officials for the railroads. Even if it were a private enterprise, it behooves the Russian Government to buy it of its owner and then cede it to Japan." The professor does not lose sight of the fact that, as a result of the Hague Peace Conference, a victor in war is obliged, at the conclusion of an international conflict, to return the railroad it captured to the hand of its owner. He suggests, however, that such a provision can be easily superseded by entering into a special agreement with the conquered nation.

THE "OPEN DOOR" IN MANCHURIA.

Next in importance is the establishment of the "open door" in Manchuria. The administrative authority in that territory must be restored to the Chinese Government, inasmuch as the preservation of the integrity of the Celestial Empire was the main issue in Japan's contention against Russia. Japan must, however, guarantee the maintenance of peace and order and protect the safety of life and property in Manchuria, in order to draw the capital of the world to that country, where natural resources, though enormously rich, still remain almost untouched. Although Professor Tomizu seems to be anxious to retain the actual as well as the formal sovereignty in Manchuria in the hands of Japan, he does not think it either politic or necessary to do so against the natural course of events. "To enjoy with all the nations on earth the economic advantages in Manchuria, is the ultimate object of Japan, compared with which the question of formal sovereignty in that district is insignificant."

PORT ARTHUR, DALNY, AND SAKHALIN.

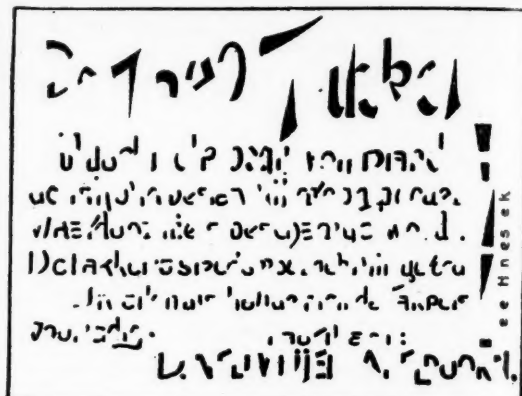
Another condition which Japan should demand of Russia is the cession of the lease which the latter secured of Port Arthur and Dalny. In the opinion of Professor Tomizu, from the fact that that lease is not a right *in personam*, but a right *in rem*, it follows that Russia does not necessarily lose that right although the fact that her final defeat in the present war would

render her unable to exercise it. Consequently, Russia would be still in a position to dispose of her lease of Port Arthur and Dalny even after the war had ended in her disaster. The acquisition of these two ports by Japan is of vital significance, in order to perfect the advantage of the Eastern Chinese Railway.

No less important for Japan than these two ports is the island of Sakhalin. Surrounding that extensive island, the northern waters furnish one of the richest fishing grounds. "Japan should receive it back from Russia, for the rich island was stolen from us, as it were, by the clever and shrewd Muscovite diplomats in the roseate name of a mutual exchange, at the time when our country was just awaking from its long slumber."

THE CESSION OF EASTERN SIBERIA.

Professor Tomizu is, indeed, bold enough to assert that a vast section of Siberia east of Lake Baikal should also be ceded to Japan. More than this, the professor believes it necessary to temporarily occupy some of the important points in the region west of the lake. This is necessary, he believes, "in order to checkmate the aggression of Russia, which is the constant menace to the peace of the far East." Again, the acquisition of eastern Siberia is indispensable from an economic as well as from a strategic point of view. The fishing interests in the waters of Sakhalin cannot be perfectly promoted unless the continental territory facing that island be placed under Japanese administration. Moreover, that part of Siberia between the Sea of



FACSIMILE OF A JAPANESE WAR TELEGRAM TO THE GOVERNMENT AT TOKIO.

Japan and Lake Baikal abounds in rich gold mines. To hold that country, fully developed and utilized, is to gain the economic supremacy in the East. Considered from a strategic point of view, Lake Baikal is the most advantageous point at which to stem the eastward advance of Russia. The minimum amount of indemnity which Japan should claim of Russia the professor estimates at one billion rubles. He by no means inclines to the opinion of those who would make Mukden or Harbin the last point of the Japanese advance, but asserts, in no uncertain terms, that the Mikado's army should not pause at any point short of Lake Baikal, and, if need be, should advance even beyond the lake.

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON PORT ARTHUR'S DEFENSE.

TREATING of the larger aspects of the siege of Port Arthur, Capt. Alfred T. Mahan contributes to the *National Review* an elaborate article in which he strongly urges that Russia did well not to abandon the fortress. He refers to the widespread impression, when hostilities began, that Russia's determination to hold the fortress was a concession to national pride and to political considerations, but in defiance of sound military principle. He compares Port Arthur with Ladysmith during the Boer war, and says:

I should imagine that there must now be much less doubt of the propriety of the Russian resolution than there was three months ago, just as I cannot but think that as time leaves further behind the period of the Boer war there will be an increasing conviction that the occupation of Ladysmith was neither an error in

the beginning nor a misfortune to the future of the war. Why? Because, in the first place, it arrested the Boer invasion of Natal, by threatening their line of communications; and, secondly, it detained before the besieged place a body of enemies which in the later part of the hostilities would have been more formidable elsewhere. I apprehend that Port Arthur has fulfilled, and (August 8) continues to fulfill, the same function toward the Japanese, though it seems much more evident now than at first. The gradual development of operations makes it to my mind increasingly clear that the number of Russians there, plus their artificial advantages of fortification,—which evacuation would have surrendered,—are much more useful to the general plan of campaign than they would be if with Kuropatkin. To carry Port Arthur, or even to maintain an investment, the Japanese must be more numerous than the garrison; therefore, had the place been abandoned, the aggregate of troops transferred to Kuroki would have exceeded decisively those added to his opponent.

THE KEY TO THE WHOLE SITUATION.

Port Arthur, indeed, Captain Mahan believes, has been, and still remains, the key to the whole situation.

Port Arthur has meant, and still means, delay, the great need of all defense, but especially of that particular defensive which requires time to organize resources incontestably superior. Whether it avails finally has yet to be shown in the result, but in the process its influence is steadily visible, with a clearness to which even success can scarcely add demonstration. It imposed upon the Japanese at once two objectives,—two points of the utmost importance, between which they must choose,—whether to concentrate upon one or divide between the two; and at a moment of general numerical inferiority, it retained, in the fortifications of the place, a passive strength, which is always equivalent to a certain number of men,—the number, namely, by which the besiegers must outnumber the besieged. These divergent objects were Port Arthur and the discomfiture of the northern Russian army, necessary to assure the Japanese the control of Korea and the release of Manchuria, the professed motives of the war.

When the war broke out, Russia was caught napping. She was totally unprepared for war;

her vast resources were unorganized and her statesmen and generals profoundly ignorant of their enemy and his strength.

Under these circumstances, two things were necessary to Russia,—delay, in order to gather her resources, and promptitude in repairing the neglects of the past. Herein appears the importance of Port Arthur; it has obtained delay. The time occupied in the siege has been ample for a government which recognized that the whole Japanese movement turned upon the control of the sea to have dispatched a fleet which by this time could have reached the scene, and very well might have turned the scale, allowing only for the fortune of war. Before this, the aggregate of Russian naval force might have been made very decidedly superior to that of Japan, and the problem of bringing the separated sections into coöperation against a concentrated enemy, though difficult, would be by no means hopeless. Success would have ended the war.

The Japanese, having this danger staring them in the face, have, Captain Mahan thinks, seen it more clearly than many of their critics. As shown by the course of the war, by their action, they have recognized that Port Arthur was the key, not only to the naval war, but to the whole



HOW THE RUSSIANS SEND MESSAGES FROM PORT ARTHUR.

(The carriers of the letters are mostly convicts condemned to long terms of imprisonment. They willingly take the letters, which are written in cipher, and carry them to the Russian camp. Those convicts who bring the letters through in safety are liberated. Very frequently the Chinese fishermen and workmen undertake the dangerous task of carrying the messages. The Japanese outposts keep a very sharp lookout for these messengers, and often have a dog with them. They shoot anybody stealing along the shore, and the most dangerous points have to be passed by the letter-carriers at night.)



THE EAST WINDOW.

PETER THE GREAT: "I made the window to the West, Nicholas, like a good carpenter. When you cut the window to the East, don't be blown away by a blast."

From *Ull* (Berlin).

campaign, land and sea. They have so far failed to crush Kuropatkin, owing to the lack of sufficiently preponderating numbers. Had Port Arthur been abandoned, the Russians would have been in a much larger numerical inferiority. As it was held, the Japanese were obliged to attack it by fear of the reinforcement of the Russian fleet. It was this fear which made Togo so careful of his battleships. Moreover, the defense of Port Arthur made possible the raids of the Vladivostok fleet, which have badly hampered Japan.

Captain Mahan criticises the Russian naval commanders severely for not adopting a more vigorous attitude and attempting to cripple the Japanese ships, even at the cost of some of their own. The Baltic fleet could certainly have been sent out if it had been ready, and this would have destroyed Japan's chance at sea. Meantime, the issue of the war is doubtful. "Each successful retreat leaves the Russian army still an organized force, still 'in being;' draws it nearer to its resources, and lengthens its enemy's communications."

IS SCANDINAVIA CONCERNED IN THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR?

AN editorial summing up of the attitude of the principal European countries toward the war appears in *Nordisk Revy*, the popular magazine of Stockholm. The writer holds that the jealousy of the great powers would prevent any intervention in case Russia should regain the ascendancy, although England and the United States are deeply interested commercially in not according to Russia a free hand in the far East "and certainly would like to interfere." Yet England could not, without hopelessly losing her prestige in Asia, desert her ally, Japan, but "would proclaim war against Russia, for which emergency her government is making preparation on land and sea." Then would come the long-expected struggle between these two powers for ascendancy in Asia, a struggle which would most assuredly concern European interests, including those of Scandinavia.

HOW DENMARK WOULD BE AFFECTED.

That the Scandinavian countries could not remain unaffected by a Russo-English conflict, which is one of the possible eventualities of the war, seems obvious, and it is therefore reasonable to outline their positions in such an emergency. They would probably issue a declaration of neutrality, in spite of attempts to show how



KING OSCAR OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

(A recent portrait.)

many political and commercial advantages they would gain by taking sides with Russia. The writer continues:

The Russian Government has recently presented such hints in one of Denmark's foremost newspapers, as

well as in other places. The cause of this is to be sought in the fact that the neutrality of the Scandinavian countries—so far as it really could be preserved—in any case would be a greater obstacle to Russia than to England. England would have no reason for not respecting Scandinavian neutrality, while Russia would have the advantage of using Denmark as a field from which to hinder the operations of the English fleet in the Baltic. In Danish minds there doubtless still lingers the incident of 1807, when England captured the excellent Danish navy in order to prevent Napoleon, who then was the master of Europe, from making use of it and thus paralyzing her commerce in the Baltic. No one will defend the bombardment of Copenhagen and the seizure of the Danish fleet in time of peace, but this incident is only quoted to show that the chief cause of the English policy then no longer exists, at least so long as Denmark will and can make her neutrality respected by Russia. Only in the event of Denmark entering upon intrigues with Russia could England hold her responsible without too seriously offending the English public sense of justice. For its operations in the Baltic the English navy has no need of Danish or Swedish islands for coaling stations, as it could take possession of the Finnish islands Åland and Hangö, when it pleased, while at the same time a strong movement in Finland in England's interest would follow.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY SURE TO BE INVOLVED.

Russia, the article goes on to say, would, by occupation of the Danish islands, secure the great advantage of being able to cut the communication of the English fleet with its base, and the certainty of ruining Danish commerce would not deter her from such a step, especially if by means of menace or promises of future commercial advantages she could secure the neutrality of Sweden and Norway. A temporary Russian ascendancy in the Danish islands, however, would compel England to seek a point of operation for her fleet as near the theater of war as possible, and such a one could only be found on Norwegian or Swedish territory. "In other words, Russia can compel England to violate the Scandinavian neutrality, and at the same time Sweden and Norway would be involved in the conflict." The article goes on to show how, on previous occasions, Russian policy has sought to force Sweden and Norway into a conflict with England.

WHY RUSSIA WOULD WELCOME A WAR WITH ENGLAND.

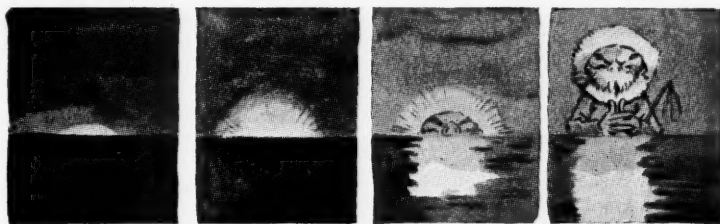
It may seem as if the moment were not well chosen for Russian plans such as hinted at, but history shows exactly how the Russian Government acts when it purposes to secure momentary advantages.

It should not be forgotten that autocratic Russia actually subsists on the half-superstitious respect of the masses for the laws, and that, consequently, a defeat in the war with Japan alone, whose insignificance, poverty, and paganism have been impressed in every possible way upon the Russian masses, would be a fatal blow to their respect, and consequently to the continuance of the autocratic régime. A war with England would, on the contrary, awaken the whole chauvinism of Russia, and thus, in spite of still more signal defeats, give the government another term and prolong the present dynasty.

THE DUTY OF SCANDINAVIA.

Against such neighbors as Russia, this magazine article concludes, "it is necessary to be on guard and to keep the doors well shut."

The Scandinavian countries are, as has been shown, by nature so intimately linked together that the breaking open of the door of any one of them exposes the others to the same fate; nevertheless, the defense of these doors is not uniform and solid, though such a defense is absolutely necessary for the safety and liberty of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway against their rapacious and powerful neighbors. A more opportune political moment than the present could hardly occur in which to give this existing solidarity of interest a formal expression by a Scandinavian triple alliance. The ability and the will to defend their own neutrality constitute the only true guarantee for peace, because, independent of other factors, separated, the Scandinavian countries would hardly be able to resist an attack; united, they would not only strengthen their capacity for defense, but also demonstrate their power to make their neutrality respected, and thus, perhaps, render the peace of the world a greater service than can at this moment be realized. An alliance for the establishment of Scandinavian neutrality could without difficulty be made compact and durable, and therefore the present opportune moment should be seized, without regarding any possible threats, while Russia's hands are busily engaged with the struggle in the East.



SUNRISE IN FINLAND—WHICH THREATENS NIGHT TO SCANDINAVIA.

From *Jugend* (Munich).

BISMARCK'S CHIEF DISCIPLE ON THE WAR.

OFFICIAL Germany has sympathized with Russia from the outset of the great conflict. What independent Germans think of the war, its probable result, and its lessons up to date is not sufficiently clear. The Liberals and Social Democrats of the Teutonic Empire are not enamored of Muscovy, for obvious and valid reasons, but their utterances have been guarded. Considerable attention has been attracted by an article entitled "Krieg und Friede" (War and Peace) in the bold and aggressive *Zukunft*, the

but begun, and the Japanese, "having failed to force a single general battle," will eventually share the fate of Napoleon. Haarden proceeds:

The rulers of Russia know all this perfectly, and they are simply amused at the European notion that Japan can defeat the Muscovite Empire. The Japanese have foreseen everything, have calculated everything to the minutest detail, have oiled every little wheel in their military mechanism, and they are waging the war after the most perfect modern method, so that one might almost think that a mathematical genius presides over their general staff. . . . They know all the weak sides of their antagonist; they have taken full advantage of these, and have done things which Napoleon, in his campaign against England, did not succeed in doing. Their army is distinguished for bravery, discipline, and contempt of death, thus refuting the assertion of Emperor William that only a good Christian makes a good soldier. Above all, they have kept their own counsel, and have not betrayed their plans by a word. But, in spite of daily announcements at Tokio of brilliant achievements, one gains the impression that the most judicious of the Japanese are decidedly uneasy amid all this glory. Their tendency to beneficent lying prevents them from acknowledging their painful misgivings. Let but Kuropatkin obtain his three hundred thousand troops,—the number he fixed upon orig-



IS THE KAISER SECRETLY AIDING RUSSIA?

From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

review edited by Bismarck's chief disciple and exponent in periodical literature, Maximilian Haarden. Herr Haarden has had more than one collision with the authorities. He is like his late great master in some respects,—outspoken, vigorous, and courageous. His organ is at once radical and Bismarckian. In the article named, he declares himself to be a firm believer in Russia's ultimate triumph.

Russia, he says, has sustained some severe reverses, but this has surprised no competent student of the military situation immediately before and after the rupture. Kuropatkin has been master of his task, and he has, considering his difficulties and resources, accomplished much that would have been far beyond the powers of an ordinary commander. Only those can criticize him who have no conception of his position. The Russians, continues Haarden, have fought well and gloriously, as is indicated by their lists of killed and wounded and by the admissions of their enemy. The great Russian, as Tolstoy and Dostoevsky testify, does not, by his nature, love fighting for its own sake, but when he has faith in his cause he is a splendid fighter. His defensive capability is exceptional, as Napoleon's experience has taught the world. The war has



GERMANY'S
SORROW WITH RUSSIA. | JOY WITH JAPAN.

Chancellor von Bülow's idea of strict neutrality.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

inally,—and the sun of the Japanese, which has hardly risen, will sink again. At the best, they can prolong the war, but Kuropatkin has taken this into account. It may take two years to vindicate Russian prestige, but vindicated it will be. Where, then, is the error of the Japanese, the rift in their lute? It is here,—they have thoroughly grasped the disadvantages of Russia, but they have not paid the least attention to a single

one of her sources of strength. In the end, therefore, the admirably prepared enterprise will turn out to have been an heroic piece of folly.

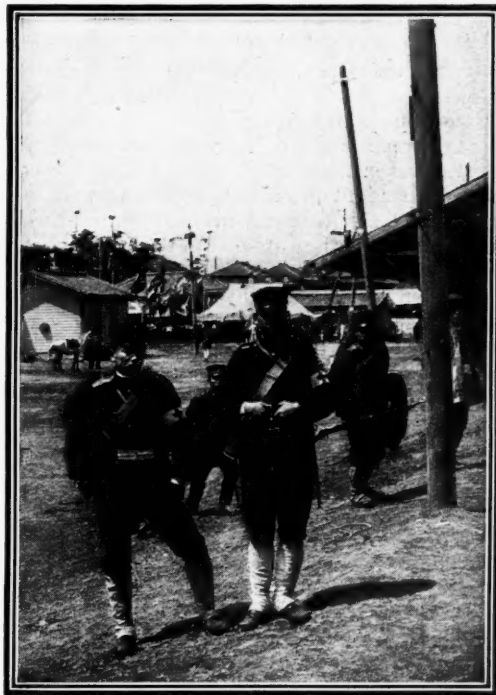
Haarden's opinion is based chiefly on Japanese alleged poverty, on the exhaustion of her resources and credit, and on her inability to replace lost ships, guns, and soldiers.

THE JAPANESE RED CROSS.

IT appears that thirty years ago, at least, the Japanese Government recognized the essential principles of all Red Cross relief work. According to an article contributed to the *Outlook* (New York, September 3) by Mr. George Kennan, an order was issued by Vice-Admiral Saigo to the Japanese surgeons, in 1874, during an expeditionary campaign against the Botangs, one of the savage tribes of the island of Formosa, directing the surgeons not to confine their relief work to the Japanese, but to treat with strict impartiality the sick and wounded of both sides, thus recognizing the Red Cross principle that a wounded and disabled enemy is entitled to protection and relief. This, of course, was long before Japan became a party to the Geneva Convention, and six or seven years before the first Red Cross association was organized in the United States. When the Satsuma rebellion broke out, in 1877, a number of philanthropic Japanese noblemen organized a body known as the "Hakuaisha," or "Extended Relief Association," whose purposes were practically those of our own Red Cross societies. In 1886, the government having become a party to the Geneva Convention, the "Extended Relief Association" changed its name to the "Red Cross Society of Japan," and modified its regulations so as to make them accord with those of the international organization.

THE SOCIETY'S STRENGTH AND EQUIPMENT.

Mr. Kennan finds that the most remarkable feature of the Japanese society is its extraordinary numerical strength. At the first of the present year, it had no less than 894,760 regular members, each of whom was pledged to contribute not less than three yen (\$1.50) annually for a period of ten years. Mr. Kennan estimates that the society has one member to every fifty-two inhabitants, or a member to every seven and one-half families, and that it is in receipt of an annual income of \$1,342,000. If the Red Cross of the United States were as strong as this, in proportion to the population of the country, it would have a membership of 1,538,-



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RED CROSS MEN AT SHINEGAWA.

000 and an annual income of \$2,307,000. In the central organization of the American Red Cross, at the present time, there are only a few hundred members, and the society has no regular income at all outside of the contributions made by the public for specific purposes.

Mr. Kennan, who is himself an ex-officer of the American organization, thinks that the American society might do much worse than study the methods and follow the example of Japan. In December, 1902, when the Japanese society celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary, more than one hundred thousand members, from all parts of the empire, assembled in the city of Tokio and took part in the proceedings.

On January 1, 1904, the Japanese Red Cross had ready for immediate work 14 chief surgeons, 277 ordinary surgeons, 45 pharmacists, 1,920 trained nurses, 457 probationary nurses, and 763 stretcher-bearers and male attendants. It had 4 hospital steamers, 398 cases of surgical instruments, 496 stretchers, 52,438 suits of clothing for sick or wounded patients, 27,199 suits of clothing for nurses, and a great quantity of bedding, cots, tents, medicines, and other supplies for field and hospital work.

UNDER MILITARY CONTROL AND DISCIPLINE.

Mr. Kennan points out one notable difference between the American Red Cross and the Red Cross of Japan in the relations that they sustain to their respective governments, and particularly to the departments of war and the navy. The Red Cross in the United States has always been an independent organization, not connected in any direct way with the military establishment, nor subject, in time of war, to the direct control and supervision of the military authorities. In Japan, on the contrary, by virtue of the imperial ordinance of December 2, 1901, the Red Cross, in time of war, becomes virtually a part of the army and navy, and the members of its field force—surgeons, nurses, and attendants—are made subject, not only to military direction, but to military discipline.

Mr. Kennan expresses the opinion that in thus

making the Red Cross an auxiliary part of the regular medical and sanitary service of the army and navy, and in subjecting its field workers to military control and discipline, Japan has acted wisely and prudently. Mr. Kennan alludes to the well-known fact that the independent organization of the Red Cross in the United States and the semi-independent operations of its field force in time of war have always given rise to a certain amount of friction, jealousy, and ill-feeling. "The mere presence on the battlefield of an independent body of surgeons and nurses is in itself a sort of reflection upon the competency of the army's medical department, and it is resented, more or less actively, by the regular officers of the medical staff." Mr. Kennan refers particularly to the experiences of the Cuban campaign. He argues that if the relief corps of the Red Cross acted in coöperation with the military authorities, and under the latter's direction, their mutual relations would be greatly improved, and the service rendered by both would probably be more efficient. "Unity of plan and direction are as necessary to success in relief work as they are in military strategy, and the experience of Japan certainly shows that the people of the country will support just as generously and enthusiastically a Red Cross that is under the direction of the military authorities as a Red Cross that tries to take, in the field, an attitude of quasi-independence."

HAS JAPANESE COMPETITION BEEN OVERESTIMATED?

THE industrial aspect of the "yellow peril," the question in how far the inevitable expansion of Japanese commerce and industry in the event of a Japanese victory in the present war would close the "open door" of eastern Asia to the European markets, is discussed in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin) by Dr. Max Nitzsche. Pessimists in Germany are pro-Russian in their sympathies because they consider Russia as the protagonist of the white race, while they fear that a Japanese victory would swell the pride and the national ambition of Japan to such a degree that on having attained to paramountcy in eastern Asia she would inscribe upon her banners the pan-Asiatic watchword, "Asia for the Asiatics!" The writer undertakes to reassure these pessimists by pointing out that the economic and industrial conditions in Japan are by no means such as to enable her at once to take the leadership in Asiatic commerce. The peaceful social revolution wrought in Japan within the last half-century, which finds no par-

allel anywhere in history, still has not enabled her to become a serious competitor of European commerce. In the first place, there is the labor question. Although labor is pitifully cheap in Japan, we find here an illustration of the adage that cheap labor is poor labor.

THE JAPANESE WORKINGMAN.

The difficulties confronting the Japanese manufacturer appear from the following description of the Japanese workingman:

According to the unanimous testimony of unprejudiced observers, three times as many persons are required for the same kind of work in Japan as in England. One English spinner, with an assistant, looks after two frames of 800 spindles each, or even a self-actor of 3,000 spindles, while the Japanese (or Chinese) spinner only looks after 200 to 300 spindles. The English spinner loses 5.8 per cent. of his time in knotting the broken threads, while the Japanese loses 25 per cent. In consequence, the English spindles run twice as fast as the Japanese spindles. It is the same in weaving. In Massachusetts, one girl attends to six looms; in Lan-

cashire, to four; but in Japan, only to one. This slowness appears not only in machine work, but also in ordinary earth works, in building, mining, etc. The average Japanese hates continuous, hard work; he does not care how long his hours are, if he can work leisurely. Every few minutes he stops, to sing, chat, smoke, or sip tea. If the work-giver tries to stop such dilly-dallying by punishments, he loses his working force without finding a better one. This æsthetic race actually despises machinery on account of its regularity and precision, and because it destroys all artistic individuality. The workman will always prefer the less expeditious hand work, if he can. An immense amount of material, moreover, is lost through the carelessness of the workers, and much is ruined by their awkwardness, but the Japanese, with his sunny, childlike disposition, does not care in the least; on the contrary, he laughs over these mishaps. He lacks all feeling of responsibility.

The manufacturers have to cope with the further disadvantage of being unable to get a steady, well-drilled force of workers, as the Japanese are naturally too restless to remain in one place for any length of time. In the cotton mills, for example, only 25 per cent. remain longer than two years, and it is estimated that 10 per cent. of the mill girls leave the mills every month, so that the manufacturer is confronted with a new force every ten months.

JAPANESE COMPETITION WITH FOREIGN MANUFACTURES.

Nevertheless, Japanese industry is rapidly developing, and herein the writer sees the greatest safeguard against the "yellow peril." For the increasing demand for labor at home will act as a check to the undesirable emigration of the Japanese workers to European countries. And in proportion as Japan is changing from an agricultural to an industrial state its exports will counterbalance its imports. Its exports of modern factory work now exceed those of the old-time arts and crafts work, the latter going almost exclusively to Europe, while the former

go to the Asiatic markets, where they enter into sharp competition with the European goods, on account of their cheapness, and in spite of their poor quality. It may be said in general that the Japanese manufacturers fail in regard to fine, expensive products which call for complicated workmanship. This applies especially to the iron and steel industry, in which the imports are steadily increasing. Germany has captured a large part of this trade, sending over, especially, machinery of every description. This is of German make and also of American importation.

In addition to the difficulties mentioned above, the writer enumerates others with which Japanese industry will have to contend for a considerable time to come, and which will prevent it from entering into formidable competition with the Western nations. One of these is the lack of economic concentration, as shown in the numberless small establishments with a very limited capital. In 1901, for example, only 78 banks out of 1,316 had a capital of over one million yen, while 376 banks had less than thirty thousand yen! The lack of capital within the last decade is severely felt, resulting in an abnormally high rate of interest. The bank rate is from 4 to 7.5 per cent. for deposits, 9 to 14.5 per cent. for loans, and 1.8 to 5.2 sen a hundred yen for call money. This lack of capital is due to the disinclination of the Japanese to go to the foreign money markets. In 1903, barely 200,000,000 yen of the national debt of 559,610,000 yen were in foreign hands.

The writer sums up his conclusions by saying: "If we take into consideration all these imperfections and shortcomings in the economic organization of New Japan,—the incompetent working force, the unsatisfactory monetary conditions, and the generally backward state of industry,—we really have no cause to fear the bogey of the 'yellow peril.'"

KOREAN CHARACTERISTICS.

IN considering the plans the Japanese Government may have for the future industrial development of Korea, Dr. Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review* (Seoul), declares that for the past century, or more, the Korean people seem to have been "absolutely blind to their opportunities; and, so far from leaping to the opportunity, they have had to be coaxed and wheedled into accepting even the cream of that opportunity." Industrial, economic, and general commercial conditions in Japan, China, and even the United States, the writer continues, should

have furnished Korea, in view of her natural resources, with splendid opportunities for profit and advancement. But, "instead of this, we see the Koreans universally howling because the export of rice and beans has raised the price of foodstuffs at home." If the mind of the Korean could be broadened to grasp "something more than his immediate environment, he would equal the Japanese in every line, excepting, perhaps, that of art." As it is, Dr. Hulbert seems to think the Korean's mental equipment somewhat contemptible. He says, further:

He knows nothing about the interrelationship of supply and demand. He sees no connection between Japanese industrial enterprise and Korean agricultural produce. He sees and knows nothing beyond the hills that bound his vision. He has no faith in any man. He distrusts any medium of exchange that does not represent in itself intrinsic value. Within the limited range of his observation, he is ready and quick to take advantage of enlarged opportunity, and he is a keen judge of relative values. His whole training goes to prove that combinations of capital are, as a rule, but traps to catch his money and finally leave him in the lurch. The investment of capital is so precarious that there is no inducement in it unless, as in a lottery, a man has a chance to double his money in a year's time. The trouble lies, not in lack of energy, nor in innate laziness, but in crass ignorance, and in suspicion bred of long centuries of indirection.

Korea has had an autonomous government

for three thousand years, and has supplied Japan with many of her most cherished ideals. But this, he believes, will not prevent the Japanese from occupying the land and, while in name respecting the territorial integrity of the country, making of it a virtual protectorate. As to the immediate future, Dr. Hulbert says :

There should be a campaign of education, not only among the Koreans of the common class, but among the Japanese of the same class as well. If the Koreans must be taught that peaceful enterprise of the Japanese in Korea cannot hurt them, the Japanese must also be taught that the Koreans have exactly as good a right to personal protection and immunity from petty assault as the Japanese themselves, and there are some who think the lower ranks of the Japanese will take a lot of teaching along this line.

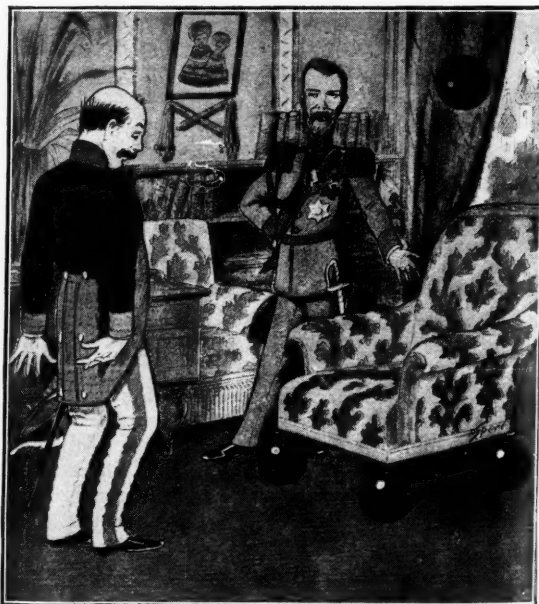
VON PLEHVE'S SUCCESSOR: A CHANGE OF POLICY?

THE appointment, after considerable delay and hesitation, of Prince Peter Sviatopolk-Mirsky as minister of the interior, to succeed the late von Plehve, is considered in Russia, as well as abroad, in circles familiar with the political currents and tendencies in the great Slav Empire, as a concession to the liberal sentiment and to the policies represented by de Witte. As there is no public opinion in Russia in the Western sense of the phrase, and as the expressions and estimates of the press are not necessarily indicative of fact, time alone can determine the correctness or baselessness of the prevailing impression. It is certain, however, that Sviatopolk-Mirsky is not identified with the political ideas or the elements of which the late minister was the most resolute and uncompromising champion.

Sviatopolk-Mirsky's training was not materially different from that of his predecessor. He was chief of the gendarmes and assistant minister of the interior under Sipiaguine. He has been governor-general of certain provinces. He is known to entertain "moderate" opinions, and his record as an administrator is respectable, but not brilliant. He is not, as von Plehve was, a "strong man," and by nature he inclines toward conciliation rather than toward bold and aggressive measures. But to conclude that his appointment spells a pronounced change of internal policy is premature.

M. von Plehve stood for these things primarily : Rigid restriction of the activities and functions of the local or provincial bodies,—the zemstvos; discouragement of all direct or indirect agitation for the extension of the represent-

ative principle and the introduction of Western constitutional and parliamentary institutions ; firm control of the press ; unification, or Russification, of the empire, and the stern suppression of "particularist" movements ; vigorous treatment of the Polish and Jewish questions, which meant the continued application of special laws



VON PLEHVE'S SUCCESSOR.

THE CZAR: "Please sit down."

From *Neue Glühlichter* (Stuttgart).

and restrictive measures; and, finally, relentless persecution of the disaffected revolutionary elements.

A favorable view (which yet contains significant admissions) of von Plehve's policy was presented in the St. Petersburg *Novoye Vremya* by one of the late minister-administrator's intimate friends, E. Bogdanovitch. Recognizing that von Plehve's connection with the "Third Section," or the "political" police, had inevitably shaped his methods and affected his judgment, the writer says:

In no sense an opponent of natural evolution tending toward the extension of social coöperation in government, V. R. von Plehve was a convinced adherent of the view that the sphere of social activity should be confined, in the first place, to the proper ordering of local and administrative affairs. He attached great importance to the participation of local representatives in this kind of work. It is sufficient to point to the part assigned to such local representatives in the readjustment of the status of the peasantry, and to the creation, in conjunction with the department of local economic affairs, of a higher council composed in part of local men. Von Plehve considered his chief duty as minister to be the safeguarding of our governmental order from the assaults of its foes, as well as the elevation of the standard of life of the masses.

On the other hand, the extreme, revolutionary view of von Plehve's career is set forth in a proclamation of the Central Committee of Revolutionary Socialists published in the *Osvobozhenie*, the Stuttgart organ of the Russian Constitutionalists. In this document, the assassination of the minister is described as an extra-legal act of justice, and an indictment of five distinct counts is presented against him. He is accused of having adopted measures of unheard-of repression, not only against physical-force reformers, but against peasants and workmen whom autocracy had driven into unintelligent revolt, and against all liberal and advanced thinkers of the country; of having fanned and inflamed the prejudices of the ignorant populace against other races inhabiting Russia, and of having instigated the anti-Jewish disorders; of having tried to establish an international police system in the interest of Russian absolutism and depriving Russian exiles of the right of asylum in Europe; and, finally, of having used his quasi-dictatorial powers to bring about the war with Japan.

The non-revolutionary reformers share, in all essentials, this view of von Plehve's policies. It is interesting to find even Prince Mestchersky, the leader of the aristocratic reactionaries in the press, warning von Plehve's successor against certain of the late administrator's errors of strategy and tactics. In his organ, the

Grazhdanin, the prince-editor declares that von Plehve deliberately concealed or withheld many facts of consequence from the Czar. He says:

I recall a question which I once put to the late minister:

"Do you tell the whole truth to the Czar, or do you exercise some selection?"

"No," said the minister, "I do not tell the whole truth, because, if I were to do so, I might excite doubts in the Czar's mind as to the fruitfulness of my policy."

How much there is in this answer of the practical philosophy of self-preservation in an official sense! And yet, when one reflects upon its real meaning one is appalled at the thought of the amount of mischief conceivably caused by the constant application of this principle of official self-interest, of the influence of fear of personal unpleasantness.

Prince Mestchersky further intimates that von Plehve was a man of dark and mysterious ways, a man who always suspected plots and opposition, and who was "diplomatic" rather than straightforward even with his associates and subordinates. The plan of mapping out a definite, simple, intelligible course and following it frankly and openly was foreign to his nature. He depended on his intuitions and impressions, and exhibited an impatience and instability which might have seemed incompatible with his apparent coldness and formalism. Prince Mestchersky advises the new minister to put away all small arts, to speak and act plainly, and to be statesman-like rather than "diplomatic." Less influential editors add, very cautiously and more between than in the lines, that the new minister ought to be more liberal and progressive as well. They speak of the critical character of the internal situation, and hope that Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky may do much to relieve it. The by no means advanced *Novoye Vremya* says, editorially:

We are now passing through an historical crisis which may influence the destiny of the Russian Empire. As the military situation in the far East becomes more and more complicated, an opportunity is offered to our enemies at home, who are always quick to take advantage of any difficulties or reverses experienced by the Russian national government. Therefore, we must show hearty coöperation in the hour of trial, repel our enemies abroad, and disarm the discontented elements at home. In order to accomplish the latter task, we must retain all the good—especially the *zemstvo*—institutions, which can only develop if allowed to work independently.

An Italian View of Plehve's Assassination.

In commenting on the assassination of von Plehve in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), Antonio Monzelli contrasts the profound impression of horror, of execration, even of surprise, which was made upon the world by the fate of republican presidents like Carnot and McKinley, and of mon-

Russia's defeat, he continues, would be the signal for "great, unending misfortune." She would be overwhelmed on all sides.

We shall be wiped off the face of the earth. . . . The dangers threatening Russia are growing to vast proportions, and we cannot but see them and recognize them. It is high time for the nation to realize that the danger is near to us. Professor Mendeleyev predicts that after this war there will come other wars as a natural sequence. We have a comparative abundance of land, our neighbors have a shortage of it, and under such conditions wars break out in obedience to the laws of atmospheric pressure. Japan is the most densely populated, hence she was the first to begin war. Germany, China, the United States, England,—they are our environment, exerting their forces with terrible swift-ness.

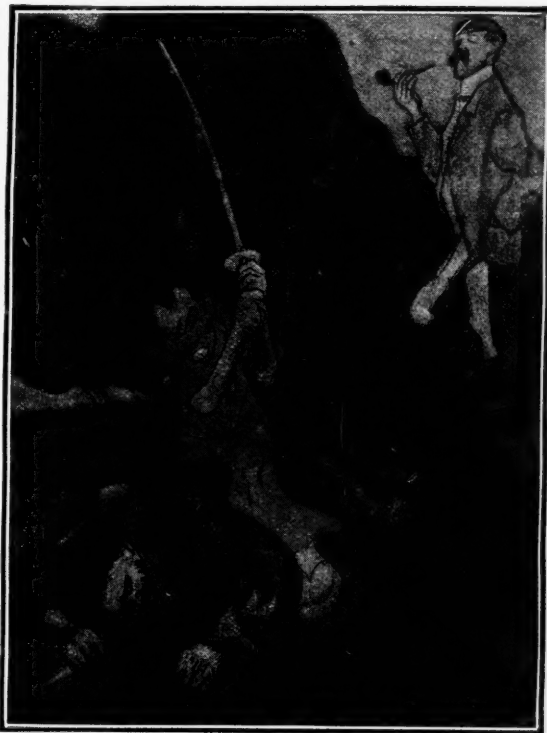
Russia must seek safety in armed resistance, declares this writer. Her powers of resistance gave way at their weakest point,—in the far East—hence "we must strive, with all our might, to hold back the catastrophe, lest it become general."

Back of Japan there stands with insolently bared teeth the most greedy race in the world—the Anglo-Saxon. England is already covertly waging against us a war that may at any moment break into open flame. She is already dispatching armed fleets to close our channels by force. On land, in Central Asia, England is already approaching our boundaries. Without an open declaration of war (this knightly custom seems to have been abolished), England is conquering Tibet, the buffer state that separated us from India. The partition of China is inevitable. There is no room for doubt that there is approaching the division of Asia and of the entire world among the peoples who are striving to survive, who are watching eagerly and are making ready to become the masters of the world. . . . England, by acquiring Tibet, will hold the key to India; and by conquering Kukuon, Alushan, and Mongolia, will exercise a direct influence over Trans-Baikal, Turkestan, and Manchuria, and will also become the master of the Celestial Empire. Germany and the United States will be given other portions of China; France will thank Providence if Indo-China is left in her possession. Gaining control of almost half of mankind, England will have in China and India unlimited material for her armies, and who is then to check her mastery of the world?

RUSSIA MUST WATCH ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

Strange as are the above utterances of one of the leading feuilletonists of the *Novoye Vremya*, the most influential newspaper in Russia, read by the court and the Czar himself, they are exceeded by his strictures on what he terms "The New England." Owing to the "incurable political optimism" of the Russians, says he,

We failed to observe the appearance of a new world hostile to us. Quite unexpectedly, our friend and well-wisher, whom we had saved from great misfortunes and whose good-will we have tried to gain by gifts, the



ENGLISH POLITICS.

"If only I could be sure that the rascal would not get up again, I would also give him a kick."

From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

United States, has turned out to be a second England and our universal enemy. How did that happen? It happened simply as anything else in nature happens. We were constantly lagging behind, while America was constantly marching onward. We have become weak, the Americans have become strong. We have become poor, they have become rich. Well, the favorites of fortune are no fit companions for the unfortunate. Like the weakling in the herd, the nation weakened in the family of its neighbors evokes instincts of greed. Weakness is naturally the prey of power. This is a law, not only in politics, but also in nature. Our only inexcusable sin in the eyes of our neighbors is that we do not know how to be strong, and the giant nations who have arisen within the last century are already beginning to push Russia with elbow or foot. There, beyond the two oceans, is maturing, or already mature for us, a new England just as hostile and fully as bitter against us as the old England, and it is now our turn to be struck by her. . . . Europe was crowded out of America by the Dingley tariff; the Columbian epoch has ended. The European nations have almost mechanically turned their attention to Asia. Only seven years ago, the partition of Asia was decided, clandestinely, but irrevocably. And do you know, in what country there was first noted this new phase of history? In this self-same America.

THE BUGBEAR OF AMERICAN IMPERIALISM.

Perceiving that nowhere else but in Asia, the greatest of continents and the cradle of mankind, a partition of land was to take place.

America, he goes on, has at one bound approached the scene of partition. In April, 1898, America attacked Spain, and in two months was already firmly established in Cuba, but a step or two from Panama, the front gate to the Pacific Ocean. On the 12th of August, a preliminary agreement was made in Washington, and in December peace was concluded and the treaty signed in Paris. Less than six years have passed since then, and the world is divided into two combinations. America, England, and Japan are under the flag of the "open door" and are seizing trade supremacy from the hands of the old Continental powers. It was for this reason, he insists, that war broke out in the far East. The predictions of the American press have been realized, he continues.

Had the European representatives in Washington paid attention to the *vox populi*, the press, they would have understood in time the direction that history was taking. They would have understood why, in the peace commission at Paris, Secretary of State Hay placed the knife at the throat of the Spanish representative, until he at last grabbed from Spain, for the sum of twenty million dollars, the Philippine archipelago, that magnificent outpost of China. America's maneuver was so clear to many that in March of last year, at a dinner given by our consul-general in New York, the following prediction was made: "For the service which our diplomacy has just rendered to America in the Venezuelan conflict we shall in less than a year have to pay, in the far East, a milliard of rubles and a stream of Russian blood. . . . This war, as was perceived by many, was prepared in America. In 1904, a Presidential election is to take place. The candidates for the office of President were picked in March. The Republican party and Roosevelt found it necessary to warn the people early in February of the dangerous rôle of Russia. Japan would have to engage her in a deadly conflict. At the time when Russia will begin to transport to the East hundreds of thousands of her sons to death and the terrible work of destruction, we shall arrange for you a magnificent festival of peaceful industry at St. Louis, and later, on the arch of chaos and death, our diplomacy will open before you the widest field for the display of your energy.

WAS THE UNITED STATES BEHIND JAPAN?

At the time when, according to Count von Bülow, all Europe was surprised at the sudden outbreak of war, the inevitable rupture was known in America—even a few days beforehand, continues this writer. The American merchants in China, he has been informed, stopped their consignments to Port Arthur as early as the 31st of January. On the eve of the Japanese attack, on February 6-7, a cablegram was received in New



AN ITALIAN VIEW OF THE RED SEA SEIZURES.
From Fischiello (Turin).

York from Tokio announcing the proposed attack, yet this message of Reuter's Agency was not communicated to Russia.

If the outbreak of war was useful to President Roosevelt in March, it will be even more useful to him at the time of the elections, in November. Just at that time, with the arrival of the Baltic fleet in the East, we should expect the appearance from behind the Japanese screens of the chief actors in this drama. The shakier the chances of the Republican party, the greater the likelihood of an external conflict before the elections, and the more secure the candidacy of Roosevelt, the greater the probability of conflict after the elections. He is a warm partisan of the fashionable and attractive policy of imperialism. He gave Panama to America. He gave an outlet to the illimitable national greed accumulated through a whole century. Roosevelt is the candidate of that mighty oligarchy which has long ruled America. They are the owners of the trusts, the kings of industry, the renowned circle of four hundred. Possessing a capital of thirty milliards, they have a net annual income of three milliards, greater than that of any great power. The entire policy of America is in their hands. They are the owners of most of the newspapers and periodicals, they are the inspiration of public opinion, bitter enemies of Europe in all the world-markets. But Russia is their particular enemy in the grain markets and in the far East. To remove Russia from Europe and from China is the secret password of the Americans. "The Pacific Ocean must become an American lake." This dream, grand almost to absurdity, is spoken of publicly. America and England are represented here as the two wings of a universal power. Great forces are at work in the two countries to effect the union of all Anglo-Saxons into a single political entity. And why should this be impossible where the same language, culture, faith, and institutions exist? In anticipation of this gigantic union, America and England have inaugurated a war, as yet hidden, with

the weakest of the naval powers, but the most dangerous for them on the Continent. Foolish Japan was sent out as a fireship; when all her forces shall be exhausted, other fleets and other armies will take their place, and the power of Russia will be crushed.

WHY THE UNITED STATES IS SAID TO BE
ANTI-RUSSIAN.

Why is all this? What has Russia done to England and America? These, says M. Menschikov, are naïve questions. Russia occupies one-sixth of the earth's territory,—that is her crime. Russia is growing fast,—that is her sin. "Russia had the audacity to come in defense of China." All this the Anglo-Saxons could not bear.

Russia is too deeply involved in Asia, more deeply than any other power; and she alone is in the way of the grand plan for the conquest of that continent.

Russia must be driven out from eastern Siberia and be thrown back from the Pacific Ocean. With the defeat of Russia, China will become the prey of England and America, like India and the Philippines. Having secured possession of the yellow race, having organized it for military purposes, the Anglo-Saxon will easily conquer the kremlin of mankind—Europe. You may think that this is a nightmare, yet it is already being realized, and is being played according to scale. The whole new world is already in the possession of the Anglo-Saxons. South America is merely a tail wagging at the pleasure of North America. Australia and Africa are in the hands of England, and the best part of Asia is likewise in her hands. How much is there left? Two more posts to be taken—China and Russia—and what then could Europe do when surrounded on all sides, plundered and impoverished.

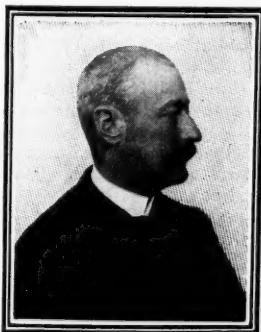
If Russia really wishes to remain a power of the first rank, an independent and mighty race, he concludes, she must keep a sharp watch.

SOME RESULTS OF FRANCE'S STRUGGLE WITH THE ROMAN CHURCH.

AN anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), who claims to speak with more or less authority, in treating of the present rupture between the French Government and the Vatican, remarks that, in spite of the formula

of Cavour—"a free church in a free state"—there must always be conflicts between the ecclesiastical and civil authorities so long as Church and State are not made absolutely separate and distinct. The great stumbling-block in the relationship between the French Government and the Vatican, he goes on to say, has been the Concordat of Napoleon I., which seemed to be based upon mutual concessions and the estab-

lishment of mutual right. The Concordat secured, nominally, the liberty of the Catholic Church in France. The civil government reserved to itself the right of nominating archbishops and bishops. But the institution in high ecclesiastical offices is lodged in the Papal

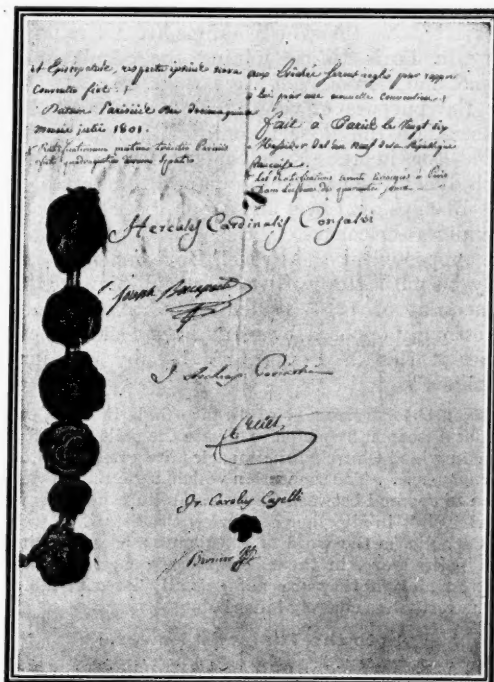


PIERRE MARIE WALDECK-ROUSSEAU.

(Died August 10.)

The late French statesman, who, when premier, brought in and fathered the famous law against the religious congregations.

establishment of mutual right. The Concordat secured, nominally, the liberty of the Catholic Church in France. The civil government reserved to itself the right of nominating archbishops and bishops. But the institution in high ecclesiastical offices is lodged in the Papal



THE SIGNATURES TO THE FAMOUS CONCORDAT MADE BY NAPOLEON WITH THE VATICAN IN 1804.



THE CHARTREUSE FATHERS LEAVING THEIR MONASTERIES AFTER THE ORDER OF EXPULSION, IN APRIL, 1902.

well as of the Church, and even French cardinals receive their instructions from the ministry in Paris before joining the conclave at Rome, and cannot even leave their own diocese for the purpose of visiting Rome without the consent of the government. This is all provided for in the Napoleonic Concordat, and such difficulties as have occurred in the cases of the Bishops of Laval and Dijon, both of whom are under the censure of the Vatican, while they are supported by the French Government, "can only be put a stop to by the repudiation of the Concordat of 1801, which repudiation would be strongly opposed by many high ecclesiastical functionaries in France, notably by Cardinal Mathieu."

Even the government of France finds in the Concordat a weapon by which to oppose the political agitation in which Church functionaries are often tempted to engage. . . . The separation which logic and reason seem to demand between Church and State, not only in France, but in all other countries, Protestant as well as Catholic, is the word of the future; because faith and politics are, in the modern world, two extreme poles, which, if they are not actually irreconcilable, are nevertheless entirely independent.

As to the Temporal Power.

The Paris *Figaro* quotes Cardinal Merry del Val as saying, in regard to the temporal power:

By the way, let me tell you that we do not like that

term. The general public should clearly understand that the Holy See demands only that material independence which is indispensable to the maintenance of its moral independence. It needs certain facilities for its intercourse with the 400,000,000 Catholics scattered over the earth. The term "temporal power" does not express that independence and those facilities. Temporal power implies administration in general, comprising that of justice, finances, police, and numerous things which may be dispensed with by the Holy See. But it cannot dispense with its material independence. That is a fact which must be made known.

French Civilization and the Monks.

An analysis of the influence of monasticism on French civilization, by Joseph Ageorges, appears in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels). It is impossible for modern historians, even of the most biased sectarian views, he writes, to deny the importance of the rôle played by the religious orders in French civilization. It has been a wonderfully significant rôle. In the Middle Ages, the monks were the mainstay of agriculture and industry, and the hope of learning. Their abodes formed centers of agriculture and of industry which soon became new centers of population. Their farms and industrial establishments were always the schools for training the peasantry in thrift, patience, and good morals. Moreover, the monks were architects, artists, general scientists, economic leaders.

They were the first to organize public benevolence. And all this in addition to the religious instruction which was their main task.

The French Congregations in Belgium.

A writer in the *Revue Bleue*, M. Dumont-Wilden, sees a grave problem for Belgium in the invasion of that country by the French religious orders since their expulsion from France. In the year 1900, before the exodus from France began, the number of convents and monasteries in Belgium was 2,221, with 37,684 monks and nuns. Statistics since the invasion from France have not yet been published, but M. Dumont-Wilden believes that they will show an alarming increase. Belgium, he reminds us, already has

a religious problem more or less acute in the fact that its population is about evenly divided between Catholics and Protestants. The invasion from France will disturb the balance. He has noted this influence in the last parliamentary election, in which the Liberal party lost an unusually large number of seats. In conclusion, he declares that, whatever may be the origin of her civilization, Belgium remains a province of France in the moral sense. "All the social movements, all the French maladies, have their reciprocal influence in Belgium, and, despite events of the hour, the Belgian Liberals can see, in the present anti-clerical current which is now sweeping over the republic, a happy sign of a near victory for their party."

MARCHAND AND KITCHENER AT FASHODA.

THE official report of the Marchand mission to central and northern Africa, in 1897-98, is about to be published. Preliminary to its appearance, the *Figaro* (Paris) prints an interview with Colonel Marchand, recounting, in his own words, how the gallant Frenchman met General Kitchener at Fashoda, in August, 1898, and how narrowly war between England and France was averted. The meeting between the two men was dramatic, but fully as dramatic is Colonel Marchand's description. Kitchener announced himself as the Sirdar of the Egyptian army, who had been commissioned to raise the Egyptian flag at Fashoda. Marchand declared himself a major in the French army, awaiting, at Fashoda, orders from his government. Could these conflicting missions be reconciled? The following conversation took place:

"I must plant the flag of his Highness the Khedive of Egypt at Fashoda, major."

"My general, I am ready to hoist it myself on the village."

"On the fort, major."

"I cannot permit that, general, for the flag is already there."

"But what if my instructions prescribed hoisting on the fort the flag of his Highness the Khedive?"

"I should be obliged to resist, general."

"Are you aware, major, that war between England and France might follow from this affair?"

Marchand declares that he bowed at this, but said nothing. General Kitchener also said nothing. He arose.

He was very pale. I arose also. He cast his eye over his numerous flotilla, where his men, who mustered at least two thousand, were huddled together. Then he looked back toward our fort, on the summit of which bayonets could be seen glistening. After this inspec-

tion, the general, with a wide movement of his arm over his flotilla, and dropping his hand in the direction of our fort, said, slowly:

"Major, the supremacy—"

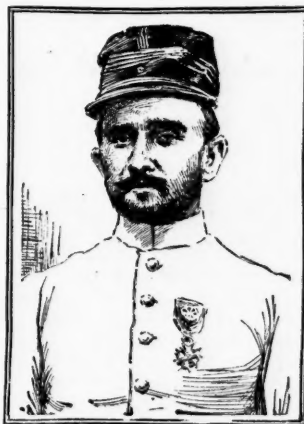
"General, military supremacy can only be established by combat."

"You are right, major, and yet I must hoist the flag of the Khedive. You do not want it on the fort?"

"It is impossible, general. Place it over the village."

General Kitchener then, says Major Marchand, recovered his good-humor suddenly, and they both took "a whiskey and soda." A couple

of hours, spent in the discussion of French politics, in which the Briton was able to give the Frenchman considerable news about his own country which had transpired since the departure of the expedition, passed pleasantly. Then word came from Paris, and the gallant Marchand, declining Kitchener's offer of transportation down



MAJOR MARCHAND.

(French explorer and army officer.)

the Nile, continued his lonely journey eastward across the Dark Continent. So far as the principals were concerned, the Fashoda incident was closed. France and England had not broken friendship.

GERMANY'S RADICAL TAX REFORM.

ONE does not expect the German Government or Emperor William to sympathize with the doctrines of Henry George or any other radical reformer. What will these reformers think of the remarkable experiment instituted by the German Government in its Chinese settlement or colony, Kiao-Chau? Some comment has been made upon this "new departure," but a fuller account of it is given, curiously enough, in a Russian monthly, the *Vyestnik Evropy*, the leading Liberal review of St. Petersburg, by a writer who signs himself "P. M. Blank."

It is, of course, a notorious fact, he says, that with the growth of cities the value of land constantly rises, so that owners of vacant lots and speculators reap "unearned increments" at the expense of the community as a whole, as well as of the tenants of the buildings that are sooner or later erected. The injustice of this state of affairs is recognized by many municipalities, but it has been found almost impossible to change the system. In its Chinese possession, the imperial government was able to make a fresh start. There were no vested rights to respect, and the military authorities have imposed this rule: Where the value of land increases in consequence of general progress, and not as the result of the owner's effort, a tax equal to 33½ per cent. of the unearned increment is levied on the lot in addition to the ordinary tax paid by real estate.

In a report to the Reichstag, this innovation is justified, as follows:

Thanks to this measure, the administration receives a share of the increased values without smothering private enterprise. If the land values do not rise, the administration gets nothing. When they rise through causes having no connection with the activities of the owners, but related to the general development of the locality due to governmental and social effort, then the government or the community,—and in this case the interests of these are identical,—should obtain its share. We think it is moderate to claim one-third for the administration while leaving two-thirds of the unearned increment to the private owners.

It is impossible to deny this, says the Russian writer, and, as a matter of fact, all the "bourgeois" and conservative parties in the Reichstag approved the measure without reservation. The leader of the extreme Right intimated that the government might well have demanded 50 per cent. of the unearned increment, while Eugen Richter, the confirmed "Manchester" individualist, praised the policy which, as he thought, would to a certain extent interfere with the private exploitation of imperial enterprises that theoretically are undertaken for the benefit of the whole nation. The *Vyestnik Evropy* writer observes that there is a good deal of local autonomy in the German Empire and no little freedom of sociological experimentation.

IRELAND'S INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

AN industrial future of bright colors is predicted for Ireland by Seumas MacManus in an article in *Donahoe's Magazine*. The "cottage industries," he believes, will be most beneficial at present. He says:

I believe the cottage industries, whereat boys and girls would perform their work around the sacred stones of their father's hearth, would bring with them by far the greatest amount of truly happy prosperity. When I look to the great manufacturing centers of England and Scotland, and know, as I do know, the appalling amount of drunkenness, wretchedness, misery, and vice of all kinds in these manufacturing cities, I say in my heart, "May God preserve us from such aggregations of factories, misery, and degradation." And I say, rather than introduce such degradation into our country, I would prefer to see our people remain in abject poverty, since in that poverty they have ever retained an elevation of soul and a gentleness and happiness of heart that is beyond all riches.

Speaking of industrial occupations for Irish girls, Mr. MacManus says:

Shirt-making is a home industry, to a large extent limited to an area of thirty miles' radius from the city of Derry,—which city is the headquarters of it. Sprigging, or embroidering, of muslins and linens is chiefly a northern industry also, and is practised particularly in the counties of Donegal and Down. It gives the girls of the household much work to do, but at a very poorly paid rate. If a girl sit at it all the day long (in which case it is an occupation trying upon the health and eyesight), she might earn a shilling for a day's work. Some girls do sit at it so, following sprigging as an occupation; but they are few. As a general rule, girls take up their sprigging at intervals of their work, and upon spare evenings, and thus they make use of time that otherwise might be wasted to turn for themselves a few shillings that will help to purchase articles of dress. Lace-making, which, so far, has been introduced in Ireland only to a very limited extent,—in a few places here and there over the island,—is a much more profitable employment than sprigging, but it needs a longer apprenticeship. Irish girls, though, are particularly deft, and I believe that if lace-making were introduced much more widely it would flourish in Ireland. Crocheting has not been widely introduced. Knitting, which all the Irish girls can do, is the worst paid of all the

home occupations. Irish women do their knitting for English houses in competition with English machine shops. The machine work is, of course, not remotely to be compared with the Irish women's hand work, yet, strange to say, they are paid for hand work prices that are not much higher than are given for machine work.

INDUSTRIES THAT SHOW PROGRESS.

He sees much hope in the paper-making industry, which has greatly increased during the past five years, and which is "certain to increase still more in future, as the Irish industrial revival coerces newspaper proprietors as well as private individuals to support home in preference to foreign manufacture." Soap-making has also increased considerably. Of other industries, he says :

It would almost seem that the Irish shoemaker was going to become a man of the past. Shoemaking was at one time a great and flourishing trade in Ireland. That time is gone, and now we find only cobblers where formerly were shoemakers. The importation of the

foreign ready-made shoe,—the English shoe, the Scotch shoe, and the American shoe,—and its general adoption by our people, great and small, ruined the country shoemaker. The tailor has been affected in like manner, though not to a like degree.

Ireland has ever been admitted by authorities to be rich in minerals. A couple of hundred years ago, many mines were worked, but in the troublous times these mines were allowed, one by one, to fall into disuse, and were never opened again. Ireland has silver, copper, and lead in abundance, which only need enterprise and capital to bring them to the surface. There is also a fair amount of coal in places scattered all over the island—both stone-coal and wood-coal. Some of it, concludes this writer, is continuously being raised, but it is being worked in too petty and too unenterprising a fashion either to attract the attention of outsiders or to pay sufficiently well those who are engaged in it.

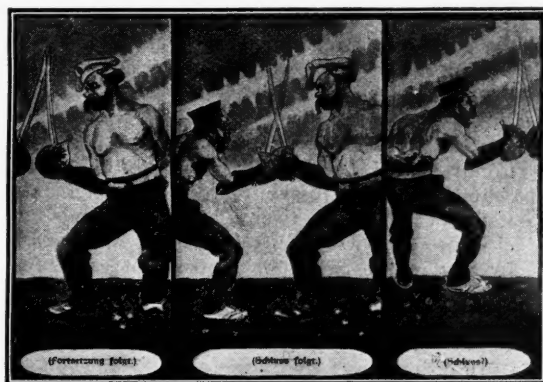
THE WHITE VS. THE BLACK AND THE YELLOW RACES.

LEADERS of Japanese opinion have vigorously asserted that the war with Russia is in no sense "a race war," or a war between different civilizations. A Russian professor, I. A. Sikorsky, undertakes to show "scientifically" that the war has assumed, and inevitably must assume, precisely that character. In an elaborate article in a quarterly, *Voprosi Psichologii* (Questions of Psychology), St. Petersburg, he discusses racial differences with special reference to the present conflict in the far East.

He begins by postulating the fact of the persistence or permanence of the more typical racial characters. What we know of prehistoric man proves this persistence. Not only external differences—the color of the skin and hair, etc.—but also the form and proportions of the skeleton and its various parts, of the white, black, and yellow races have remained what they were in the remotest past. The Egyptian or the Jew of to-day is exactly what he was in the days of which ancient Egyptian tombs have left us a record. Thousands of years have not changed the physical characteristics of the Mongolian, as the bones of the skeleton attest. Even more important is the fact that psychical and moral traits are just as permanent. The modern Jew is like the Jew painted by the biblical prophets. The French psychologist, Ribot, after citing a passage from Julius Cæsar descriptive of the ancient Gaul, exclaims : "Who, in this characterization, will not recognize the modern Frenchman !"

Even, continues Professor Sikorsky, when dissimilar races unite to form a given nation, and intermarriage and mutual assimilation follow, the result is not the production of a mean type, but the development of a type having the respective and marked qualities of both or all of the consolidated races.

Nationality is thus a biological fact. It is as distinctive as race, and each nation does well to assert itself and struggle for its integrity and individuality, as well as for an extension of its power and influence. Of course, the higher the nation, the more legitimate is this struggle for



IS THE YELLOW MAN REALLY INFERIOR?

From *Ulk* (Berlin).

supremacy, a struggle seconded by nature herself. Nature, indeed, aims at improvement. In the human world, she strives to evolve the highest species, mentally and morally. She has relegated the Hun and the Mongol to the rear and given the first place to superior races. Attila once conquered all Europe, but where now are those terrible warriors whom he led? They are very modest inhabitants of a section of Siberia. The once formidable Mongolians have been transformed into very ordinary Tartars. Nature has supplanted them; their physical and psychical traits were found wanting with respect to the needs of advancing civilization.

SUPERIORITY OF THE WHITE RACE.

It is possible, then, to judge quite objectively the respective claims of the races now in possession of the world's arena. Comparative study shows that, by virtue of the biological and psychological laws of development, the white races are destined to dominate the future. The black race is the lowest, especially in an intellectual way. The yellow race is somewhat higher, more gifted, but by no means the equal of the white. The yellow peoples are energetic and persevering, but they have created neither science nor

art, and the love of intellectual labor, the passion for culture, and the profound need of knowledge are unknown to them. They are imitative, fanatical, and clever, but they have no creative imagination—no emotional wealth, as it were—and their inferiority is unmistakable. The ideal of the many-sided development of mankind is in charge of the white races, especially in the youngest and most vigorous of them, and in a conflict between such a race and a yellow one nature is with the former, and the sympathy of civilization should be on the same side.

Coming to the Russo-Japanese war, Professor Sikorsky says that Russia's mission in Asia is no empty formula. Undeniably, Russia has spread European culture among the yellow peoples of the far East, and her advance has been gradual, inevitable, dictated by biological necessity. For hundreds of years she has carried on successfully the process of peaceful penetration and assimilation, and she has been doing the work of civilization at large. Japan is of an inferior race, and her triumph would be unnatural,—a triumph of reaction and inferiority. The war is in the deepest sense a racial war, and the Russian represents the cause of the white man against the yellow man.

A PROPOSED SIXTEENTH AMENDMENT.

THE inclusion in the Republican platform of a plank referring to the disfranchisement of citizens in certain Southern States makes pertinent the review and discussion of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments which are offered by Mr. Charles W. Thomas in the September number of the *North American Review*. Mr. Thomas, who is a Northern Republican and a lawyer, sets forth his reasons for believing that the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, and also the second and third sections of the Fourteenth Amendment, should be abrogated. In their place he would substitute a Sixteenth Amendment, providing that Representatives in Congress shall be apportioned among the several States according to the number of male inhabitants of the age of twenty-one and over, being citizens of the United States, who are permitted by law in the States, respectively, to vote for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States and for Representatives in Congress.

In order to get clearly before us Mr. Thomas' proposition, it is necessary to revert to the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment as it was framed in reconstruction times and as it

stands to-day. That section provides that Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed, but that when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participating in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such males shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State. The Fifteenth Amendment provides that the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

As Mr. Thomas points out, the Fifteenth Amendment is virtually a dead letter. It has been found entirely practicable to annul and abrogate

this amendment under the forms of law. Furthermore, there has been no serious attempt to enforce the penalty prescribed by the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment. The States which have legally annulled the Fifteenth Amendment still have representation in the Electoral College and in Congress virtually based upon large numbers of voters who have been disfranchised for other reasons than participation in rebellion or other crime. The position of the Southern States in this matter is, of course, well understood. They have held that the Fifteenth Amendment, if honestly enforced, takes from the intelligent and property-owning people in the South the direction of their local affairs and gives it entirely, or in a great measure, to an ignorant constituency, which is incompetent to manage the affairs of any government. This is the point of view of the great majority of the Southern whites. But Mr. Thomas, although a Northern Republican, also regards the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment as open to just criticism both in substance and in form.

Considering this section and the Fifteenth Amendment together as part of one plan, Mr. Thomas declares that they are based upon the denial or the abridgment of the right to vote, when they ought to have been based upon the granting and the extension of that right; in other words, that they are the very converse of what they should have been. They tacitly assume that all male citizens of the United States are entitled to vote at all elections, and they provide a penalty for any abridgment of that right; whereas they ought to have assumed that the right to vote was one which might, or might not, be given by the States, respectively, and by each State to the extent that it saw fit to prescribe, and the penalty ought to have been made to depend upon the extent to which the several States exercised their power to limit the suffrage of those citizens in national elections, with which alone the national government has just concern; that is to say, the scheme ought to have contemplated an inducement to extend the suffrage instead of providing a penalty for abridging or denying it. Mr. Thomas declares, further, that the plan is a radical departure from the established scheme of our government. The provision of a penalty for abridging the right to vote for State officers is an unwise, punitive provision, enacted, not for any good purpose affecting the whole of the people of the United States, but for the sole purpose of punishing the people of certain States for refusing to surrender their local governments to virtual anarchy. It is an unjust interference by the United States in matters which in nowise concern its government.

It is a reversal of the well-established relation which theretofore existed between the State and federal governments.

THE BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

Mr. Thomas shows, further, that the section is not and cannot be uniform in its operation, and is therefore unjust. The primary basis of representation is the number of inhabitants, but the penalty for denying or abridging the right to vote is based upon the proportion which the number of disfranchised bears, not to the number of the inhabitants, but to the number of male citizens twenty-one years of age. To show that this section cannot have a uniform operation, it is only required to show that the number of male citizens of the age of twenty-one years in any one State does not bear the mathematical relation to the number of its inhabitants that the number of such citizens in any other State bears to the inhabitants of that State. Some of our Western States, for example, have a far larger proportion of males in their population than the New England States have.

Another objection relates to the practicability of enforcing this provision. Suppose, for example, that a State denies to any citizen of the United States the right to vote because he failed to pay a poll-tax. The number of such persons would not in any two years bear the same proportion to those who paid the tax, and what just rule could be devised under which the penalty imposed by this section could be enforced? Every ten years Congress would be called upon, in the discharge of its legislative duty, to fix the representation of the several States in Congress and in the Electoral College for the succeeding ten years. What prior year would it take as a criterion when it came to consider the abridgment or denial of the right to vote based upon non-payment of a poll-tax?

"A WAY OUT" FOR THE SOUTH.

The remedy for this unfortunate condition of the fundamental law, says Mr. Thomas, is to be found in the adoption of a Sixteenth Amendment, containing provisions such as have been indicated. This proposed amendment places the power to regulate the suffrage where it was before the Fifteenth Amendment was adopted. It permits the States, so far as their local elections are concerned, to abridge or deny the right to vote as they see fit, and visits them with no penalty whatever for so doing. It simply provides that their representation in the Electoral College and in Congress shall be as they severally choose to make it by affirmative legislation. The chief reason Mr. Thomas gives for insisting

at this time on the adoption of such an arrangement is that the States which are now discriminated against and deprived of their just representation in the Electoral College and in Congress will sooner or later insist upon the enforcement of the Fourteenth Amendment and the imposition of the penalty therein provided for. The mass of people in the Northern States do not wish to have the federal government interfering in the purely local government of any

State. They will not, however, submit forever to the discrimination from which they now suffer; and any remedy which will permit the gradual, orderly, and regular extension of the suffrage in national elections is to be preferred to the enforcement of the penalties now prescribed by the Constitution. The South, in his view, should be willing to accept such a compromise as is suggested by his proposed Sixteenth Amendment.

OUR NEGRO PROBLEM, BY A NEGRO, FOR THE BENEFIT OF FRENCHMEN.

AN extended study of the white and black problem in the United States, from the negro's point of view, appears in two issues of *La Revue* (Paris). The writer, D. E. Tobias, is himself a negro, born in South Carolina. He considers that the negroes have been treated iniquitously by Europeans and their descendants in America, and his article is a plea addressed to the European public for justice to his oppressed race. If the white races of Europe, he says, had only been taught from their infancy that the "colored races form a larger portion of the human family than do the whites, and that, so far from being inferior, they are in reality very superior, especially in their ideas of religion and philosophy, as well as moral excellence, there would never have been any race question in the United States to-day." In discussing with Europeans the cause and the effects of the antagonism which exists between the whites and the blacks, it must be remembered, he continues, that it is the whites, and not the blacks, who provoke the hostility between the races. In England, for instance, it is often said that refined and intelligent white men would never live on equal footing with blacks, and many English pretend that the bad treatment meted out to colored men by the white race is due, in the first place, to the ignorance and the criminality of the American negro. Mr. Tobias seeks to show that the prejudice of color does not really exist between the whites and the blacks in the United States. The question which separates the two races in the South is purely an economic one, but the whites have cleverly managed to convert the economic problem into a psychological one. "Thanks to this subterfuge, they have succeeded in creating an almost universal belief in the existence of a race question in the old slave States."

What the white man "could not win on the field of battle during the Civil War he has tried

to realize politically at Washington during the period of 'reconstruction,' and what he could not get at Washington immediately after the emancipation of the slaves he has to a great extent accomplished by legislation." The white man in the South has never made any laws to combat the growth of ignorance among the negroes, but he has introduced into the statute books of all the slave States laws restricting the liberties of the colored race and preventing the development of their intelligence.

FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO.

In conclusion, Mr. Tobias prophesies that the two races will mingle, and that the United States will one day be peopled by a new nation in which the African negro will be an important element.

All the race prejudices of to-day will have been got rid of. Physically, the new race will be much stronger, it will be endowed with a higher intelligence and a more sympathetic heart, and it will have a higher and clearer conception of God than the whites of the West have ever had. It will be much less material than the American white of to-day. It will be especially concerned with the things of the mind, and moral excellence will become the dominant factor in the life of this new nation. The new race is also to gain more from the black element than from the white.

Mr. Tobias considers the black race intellectually, morally, and physically superior, and he sees the American race declining physically and intellectually. But before the new nation occupies the United States the black race is to become the ruling nation, and it will conquer the white, not by physical, but by numerical, force. The four millions of slaves emancipated in 1865 have grown to ten or twelve millions of colored people in the United States to-day. The problem of the twentieth century will be the establishing of relations between white and colored men, and in the end the colored races will be triumphant.

THE TARIFF AND THE TRUSTS.

IN the present campaign, there is little disposition on either side to indulge in doctrinaire discussion of the tariff question. Most of the arguments for tariff-reduction are based on the assumption that a certain class of industrial combinations is helped by the present tariff to maintain prices at an artificial level. An argument for tariff-reduction that appeals with as great force to the moderate protectionist as to the ultra free-trader is contained in a paper contributed to the *Political Science Quarterly* (Columbia University) by Prof. John B. Clark. Although a representative economist of the schools, Professor Clark is so far from insisting on theoretical free trade that he practically concedes the beneficial effects of the protective system as that system has developed in the United States. This he does, however, without attacking the validity of the free-trade position as it was originally maintained. That position he characterizes as "static" theory,—a theory which deals with a world free not only from friction and disturbance, but also from those elements of change and progress which are the marked features of actual life. In such a world there would be no inventions or improvements in business organization; population would be stationary; the world's wealth would receive no additions; in manufactures, men would continue to use the same methods and to get the same results. Under such conditions, free trade would be, of course, the only rational policy. This could be defended upon the simple ground on which the division of labor in the case of individuals is defended.

THE STATIC ARGUMENT FOR FREE TRADE PLUS
THE DYNAMIC ARGUMENT FOR PROTECTION.

Coming to the question whether a nation like ours, having all climates, from the tropic to the arctic, and all kinds of soils and mineral deposits, can produce, without much waste, all the things that it wants to use, Professor Clark admits that we can make almost everything if we insist upon doing so. But he holds that there are still some things that other countries can make and sell to us on such terms that we can do better by buying them than by producing them ourselves. For example, we can raise tea in the United States, but it pays us better to make something else and barter it off for tea. A day's labor spent in raising cotton to send away in exchange gives us more tea than a day's labor spent in producing it directly. It would be in accordance with the principle of division of labor for us to raise cotton rather than to at-

tempt to raise tea. Professor Clark's argument for protection begins at this point by accepting the whole static argument in favor of free trade and claiming that, in spite of what is thus conceded, protection is justifiable, since in the end it will pay, notwithstanding the wastes that attend it. There would be no gain in a protective tariff if every country had certain special facilities for producing particular things, and if its state in this respect were destined to remain forever unchanged. Under such conditions, the country would grow richer by depending for many things on its neighbors than it could by depending for those things immediately on itself.

The protectionist rests his case on the fact that a nation like ours abounds in undeveloped, and even unknown, resources. In order to test and develop these resources and to try the aptitudes of its people, the country is justified in taxing itself even though at the outset it sustains a loss. As Professor Clark puts it, "If we learn to make things more economically than we could originally make them, if we hit upon cheap sources of motive power and of raw material, and especially if we devise machinery that works rapidly and accurately and greatly multiplies the product of a man's working day, we shall reach a condition in which, instead of a loss incidental to the early years of manufacturing, we shall have an increasing gain that will continue to the end of time." This, as Professor Clark states, is the static argument for free trade and the dynamic argument for protection. The two arguments do not meet and refute each other, but are mutually consistent.

THE PROTECTION OF MONOPOLY.

Taking the case of the American iron and steel industries, and going back to the beginning, Professor Clark shows how it became as natural for Americans to make steel, for which we formerly bartered wheat, as it did to produce the grain itself. Originally, it was necessary to protect the iron and steel industries from competition in order to secure their establishment. Now such protection is apparently unnecessary. Labor in making steel will give us as many tons of it in a year as the same labor would give us if spent in the raising of wheat to be exchanged for foreign steel. The duty on steel no longer acts to save the steel-making industry from destruction, but it is an essential protector of a quasi-monopoly in the industry. It is thus seen that all duties on manufactured products have two distinct functions,—one to protect from foreign competition every producer, whether he is

working independently or in a combination; the other, to protect the trusts in the industry. In short, the relation of the protective tariff to monopoly is stated as follows:

Protecting an industry as such is one thing; it means that Americans shall be enabled to hold possession of their market, provided they charge prices for their goods which yield a fair profit only. Protecting a monopoly in the industry is another thing; it means that foreign competition is to be cut off even when the American producer charges unnatural prices. It means that the trust shall be enabled to sell a portion of its goods abroad at one price and the remainder at home at a much higher price. It means that the trust is to be shielded from all competition except that which may come from audacious rivals at home who are willing to brave the perils of entering the American field provided that the prices which here rule afford profit enough to justify the risk.

Assuming that competition among American producers should be unimpeded if the predictions

of the protectionists are realized, and that the tariff itself was designed to create progress in the industrial world, Professor Clark contends that a monopoly fostered by the tariff acts squarely against such progress. From this point of view, the whole force of the argument, based on mechanical invention and the development of the latent aptitudes of our people, now holds as against the monopoly-building part of the tariff.

Prices will be extortionate so long as the trusts are checked only by local rivals and are allowed to club these rivals into submissiveness and then hold the field in security. Keeping the foreigner away by competing fairly with him is what we should desire; but barring him forcibly out, even when prices mount to extravagant levels, helps to fasten on this country the various evils which are included under the ill-omened term "monopoly;" and among the worst of these evils are a weakening of dynamic energy and a reduction of progress.

THE RIGHT TO WORK.

MUCH of the opposition to labor unions seems to be due to the failure to recognize the fact that the individual employee is at a great disadvantage when attempting to make terms with his employer. In the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University), Prof. John Bascom shows how the combination of labor is an essential step in the organic growth of the community. His argument is that, since capital at the present time is at a great advantage in the ease with which it combines, a like facility of collective movement on the part of labor would restore the equilibrium between the parties in production.



DR. JOHN BASCOM.

UNIONIST VERSUS "SCAB."

In order to make a contract with capital in defense of mutual rights, it is necessary that workingmen should be banded together. Instead of assuming that the right to labor gets expression in the "scab," and the denial of that right in the trade-union, Dr. Bascom holds that the exact reverse is the truth. The union con-

tends to secure a social status, the power to form and enforce suitable contracts as safeguards of labor, thereby putting the rights of labor beyond the caprice of the employer. Employers take on and dismiss the "scab" as suits their own convenience. The "scab," indeed, has no right to labor conceded to him by the manager. He makes and enforces no contract. "Between the 'scab' and the unionist, no rights are to be gained. The unionist held his own job, and had not yielded it. The 'scab' steps in to oust him, under conditions inimical to the entire class of laborers. The cry of the right of labor made in behalf of the 'scab' is a misleading cry, designed to divert attention from the true issue. His own chances of labor are in no way interfered with. If the 'scab' succeeds, he throws some one else out of labor in its entire extent. It is this fact that is the ground of the detestation in which he is held."

GIVE LABOR THE POWER OF CONTRACT.

Dr. Bascom borrows an illustration from everyday business life. Suppose that a contractor, under an agreement to put up a building, should, in the progress of the work, find himself at disagreement with his employer as to the interpretation of certain specifications in the contract. The employer might say: "There is a man ready to take up and complete the work as I wish it to be done; all you have to do is to stand out of the way." But the contractor would reply: "I have put myself to expense, I have declined

other work, and, moreover, I expect to make something out of the job. The difference in the rendering of the contract must be adjusted, and I must proceed." The justice of the contractor's claim would be generally recognized. But why should not the laborer have equal rights in his dealings with the employer? It is Dr. Bascom's contention that, in the case of the laborer, he is robbed of the power to make a contract, and then robbed of his opportunities because he has no contract. "The law, and the administration of the law, and the action of the 'scab' under the law, when they oppose themselves to a fundamental right in a great class, are one and all hostile to democratic society. We can secure no organic completeness in society till every part ministers to every other part in reciprocal advantages. It is on this claim that the rights of labor rest."

Logical Consequences of the Closed Shop.

A wholly different point of view is represented in Prof. Charles J. Bullock's contribution to the October *Atlantic*, entitled "The Closed Shop." After considering the general question of labor contracts and the recent court decisions bearing on discrimination in the employment of labor, Professor Bullock reaches the conclusion that if freedom in the disposal of labor is to be

denied to the individual workman, the restrictions imposed should be determined by the Government, and not by any other agency.

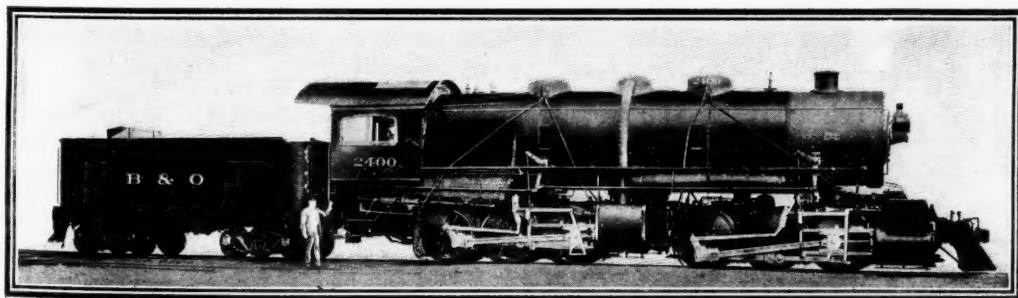
Such regulations should be just, uniform, and certain; they should not be subject to the possible caprice, selfishness, or special exigencies of a labor organization. Here, as elsewhere, we should apply the principle that when it is necessary to restrict the freedom of labor or capital to enter any industry, the matter becomes the subject of public concern and public regulation. If membership in a labor organization is to be a condition precedent to the right of securing employment, it will be necessary for the Government to control the constitution, policy, and management of such associations as far as may be requisite for the purpose in view. Only upon these terms would the compulsory unionization of industry be conceivable. Of course, before such legislation could be enacted, a change in the organic law of the States and the nation would need to be effected, for we now have numerous constitutional guarantees of the right of property in labor. These guarantees include the right to make lawful contracts, and the individual freedom so ordained can be restricted by the Legislature only when the restraint can be justified as a proper exercise of the police power. Time and effort might be required for securing such constitutional amendments; but our instruments of government provide a lawful and reasonable method of accomplishing this result.

In Professor Bullock's opinion, the demand of the trade-unions for the closed shop would lead to a revolution in our law and our economic policy.

THE MOST POWERFUL LOCOMOTIVE IN THE WORLD.

AT the St. Louis Exposition, during the past summer, the Baltimore & Ohio locomotive designed for mountain service, which is declared by engineers to be, without question, not only the biggest locomotive yet built, but also the most powerful in existence, has attracted much attention. Mr. George W. Martin, writing in the September number of *Cassier's Magazine*, describes this unique American type of locomotive.

Heretofore, the world's record in locomotive power has been credited to the enormous tandem compound ten-coupler engines built last year at the Baldwin works for the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad. These engines have a total weight of 128½ tons (without tender), of which 104½ tons are available for adhesion, the remainder being carried by the leading and trailing carrying-axles. The "Shay"



THE BALTIMORE & OHIO'S GREAT MOUNTAIN-CLIMBING LOCOMOTIVE.

locomotives of the El Paso Rock Island Railway have, it is true, a total weight, all used for adhesion, of 130 tons; but to obtain this, the weight of the tender is included. The new Baltimore & Ohio engine far exceeds either of these, for the engine alone, without tender, weighs 149½ tons, all of which is utilized for adhesion, as all the wheels are drivers. This engine was built at the Schenectady works of the American Locomotive Company, and was intended for service on the mountain section of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, to obviate, as far as possible, the use of "pushing" and "banking" engines for heavy freight trains on the steep gradients.

This engine is also noteworthy as being the first engine in the United States to be compounded on the "Mallet" system. This system,

as applied to articulation locomotives, consists, essentially, in the employment of two high-pressure cylinders driving one set of coupled wheels and carried by the main frames, and in the use of two low-pressure cylinders for driving another set of coupled wheels, these cylinders and wheels being mounted in a pivoted bogie frame. In the American engine there are two sets of six-coupled wheels, making twelve driving wheels in all. The engine is, moreover, twice as large as any "Mallet" engine previously built. The high-pressure cylinders have diameters of twenty inches; the low-pressure, of thirty-two inches; stroke, thirty-two inches. The wheels are fifty-six inches in diameter. The boiler pressure is two hundred and thirty-five pounds to the square inch.

THE ELECTRIC INTERURBAN RAILROAD.

IN less than twenty years, the system of urban and interurban electric railroads in the United States has grown from a small beginning until, at the present day, it is a rival, in some respects, of the steam railroads. Mr. Frank T. Carlton, writing in the current number of the *Yale Review*, states some interesting facts in connection with this rapid development. The first commercially successful electric roads were built in 1888, when three important lines were constructed,—one in Richmond, Va.; the second in Allegheny, Pa.; and the third in Washington, D. C. The greatest interurban development has taken place in Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois. Boston, Detroit, Cleveland, Toledo, Indianapolis, and Chicago are large centers of interurban traffic. Detroit is the terminus of about four hundred miles of interurban electric road. The capitalization of these roads is estimated to average forty thousand dollars per mile. In the State of Michigan, in September, 1902, there were twenty-four interurban lines actually in operation, and franchises asked for forty-seven more. In the State of Ohio, in May, 1901, sixty-eight companies were operating eighteen hundred and eighteen miles of electric railroads, or about one-fifth of the mileage of all the steam roads of the State.

LONG-DISTANCE PASSENGER SERVICE.

A passenger may now ride on the electric lines from Cleveland to Detroit. He is required to make only two transfers, one of which is at the Toledo union interurban station. Chicago will soon be linked with Cleveland by a trolley

line; and Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, and Cincinnati will all be connected by the electric road in the near future. The running time between Cleveland and Toledo is six hours; limited trains, stopping only at the larger towns, make the trip in four and one-half hours. A trip from Ann Arbor to Detroit requires about two hours and fifteen minutes; from Jackson to Detroit, three hours and forty-five minutes. The regularity of these interurban cars compares favorably with that of passenger trains on steam railroads.

TROLLEY EXPRESS TRAFFIC.

It will be news to some readers that the express and freight traffic of the electric roads is becoming an important factor. The three States, Ohio, Michigan, and New York, lead in the amount of express and freight handled. The total receipts in the whole country for this form of traffic, in the year 1902, amounted to \$1,439,769, more than half of which is credited to the three States above named. The Detroit interurban lines run large express cars, which serve the country within a radius of sixty miles, making, in some towns, three deliveries daily. The Eastern Ohio Traction Company has two forty-mile branch lines east of Cleveland, through a farming country which is not reached by the steam railroads. Milk, coal, wood, wool, etc., are carried by this company. The charges and methods of handling freight are quite similar to those employed by steam roads. The agents of the Rockford & Interurban road, in Illinois, stand ready to receive orders by telephone as to the purchase of goods and to ship the goods

thus ordered on the next express train, or, if the consignment is small, on the next regular passenger car.

COMPETITION WITH THE STEAM ROADS.

The electric roads are formidable competitors of the steam roads for short-haul traffic, both passenger and freight. As an instance of this, Mr. Carlton cites the case of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railroad, paralleled by an electric line from Cleveland to Painesville, a distance of about thirty miles. The number of passengers carried between the two cities and

intermediate points, in 1895, before the completion of the electric road, averaged 16,600 a month; in 1902, the average was reduced to 2,400 per month. West of Cleveland, the same steam railroad averaged, in 1895, 16,900 passengers monthly between Cleveland, Oberlin, and intermediate points; in 1902, this monthly average had diminished to only 7,650. The electric lines, besides reducing rates and giving more frequent service than the steam railroads, carry the passengers or freight directly to the heart of the city. Electric sleeping and dining cars are already in use on some roads, chiefly in Indiana.

THE PERDICARIS EPISODE.

THE kidnaping of Mr. Ion H. Perdicaris, an American citizen, by the Moroccan bandit, Raissuli; his long detention; the intervention of the United States and British governments, and his final release on the payment of a generous ransom, are all now matters of history, and an incident that threatened at one time to lead to international complications will soon be forgotten by all except the parties directly concerned. Still, the story of Mr. Perdicaris' captivity is interesting and important for the light that it throws on the peculiar tribal feuds and bickerings which, from time to time, have led, practically, to the disruption of all social security in Morocco. The full narrative, as written by Mr. Perdicaris himself while in captivity, supplemented by an account of the conclusions

and negotiations with the bandits and the release of the captives, is contained in the September number of *Leslie's Monthly*.

Passing by the story of the captivity and the subsequent hardships suffered by the captives, which has been fully related in the daily press, we find in this article an interesting statement of the incidents that led to the conception of the kidnaping scheme, together with an apparently candid presentation of Raissuli's defense. Mr. Perdicaris tells how, in the summer of 1902, various outrages were perpetrated by officials of the Moorish Government in the agricultural districts immediately surrounding Tangier. It was in the following summer, while an attempt was being made by the Sultan's troops to seize Raissuli himself, that Mr. Walter



"AIDONIA," THE COUNTRY SEAT OF MR. PERDICARIS.

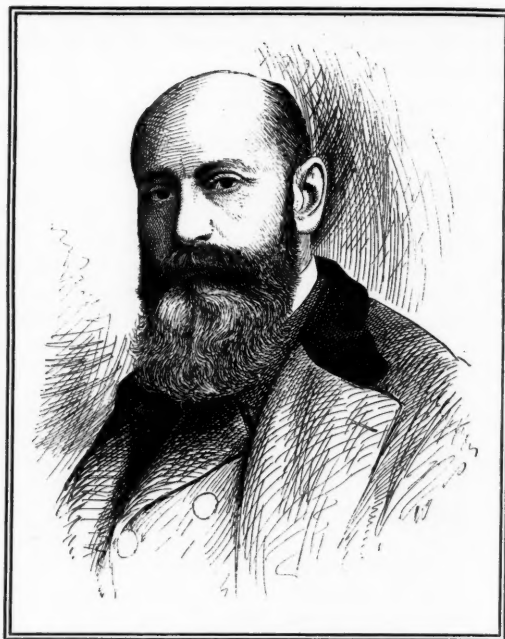
B. Harris, the correspondent of the *London Times*, was captured and held until the Moorish Government, under pressure from the British legation, acceded to Raissuli's demands for the release of his followers who had been taken prisoners at various times. Subsequently, many hostile natives were made prisoners by the government troops, having been persuaded, on false assurances of safe-conduct, it is claimed, to come into the camp of the Basha, carrying presents instead of arms, in order to negotiate for a general submission. This latter incident is said by Mr. Perdicaris to have been the immediate cause of his own captivity.

A GENTLEMANLY BANDIT.

It is evident that Mr. Perdicaris was strongly impressed by the dignified and courteous bearing of Raissuli. From the first, it seems that the captives were permitted by Raissuli to communicate freely with their friends in Tangier. When Mr. Perdicaris was confined to his bed, owing to the effects of a fall, Raissuli showed much apparent concern as to his condition, and frequently came to see him, and talked freely with him. It was in the course of these conversations that Mr. Perdicaris learned that Raissuli had no wish to harm him or to exact any personal ransom for his release, but that he had certain definite demands to make on the Moorish Government. These terms, as Mr. Perdicaris at once saw, were "singularly exorbitant." First, he demanded from the Moorish Government the removal of the Basha of Tangier, together with the release, not only of the men from the village of M'zorra, so treacherously seized, but also of all his friends, partisans, and relations actually in the hands of the government authorities, together with an indemnity of no less than seventy thousand dollars, to cover the losses inflicted upon the Raissuli faction. For the members of his faction, moreover, he demanded a complete pardon and safe-conduct for the future.

RAISSULI AS A PATRIOT LEADER.

Little by little, as the chief of the kidnapers became better acquainted with his captive, he talked freely of his past life and all that he had suffered at the hands of his enemies. He declared that after his clan had endured a succession of outrages, culminating with the treacherous capture of the M'zorra deputation, he determined to seize upon some European and to hold him till these men should be released and restitution made for all the wrongs that his party had suffered. Thus, Mr. Perdicaris was brought to a place where he was told no European or foreigner had ever set foot, not to be plundered,



MR. ION PERDICARIS.

(Mr. Perdicaris is the son of a native Greek who was educated at Amherst College, married a South Carolina lady, and served as American consul-general at Athens, under appointment by President Van Buren.)

but merely as a means of forcing the government to render some measure of tardy justice. In the first part of his article, Mr. Perdicaris seems inclined to express genuine sympathy with the story of Raissuli's wrongs as it was related to him. But in the concluding portion, written after he had come back to Tangier and learned how the threat of his death had been held over his friends at home, in case Raissuli's terms should not be complied with, he is less disposed to forgive his captor's aggressions. He declares, however, that, not by our standards of right and wrong, but by his own, Raissuli still stands head and shoulders above his compatriots. Mr. Perdicaris considers him rather in the light of a patriot who is using every means within his reach, even means which we cannot but condemn, to defend the independence of these Berber Kabyles, who, since the days of the Roman Empire, have resisted every attempt to subdue their wild love of freedom.

Raissuli, it seems, heard of the arrival of the American ships in Tangier Bay with equanimity, merely remarking, "Now the Sultan's authorities will be compelled to accede to my demands."

THE CALL FOR MEN AS PUBLIC-SCHOOL TEACHERS.

IT is a well-known fact that the proportion of women teachers in the schools of the United States has grown steadily during the past fifty years. To-day, there are fewer men teaching than there were in 1860, but there are four times as many women. An article in the September number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, by Richard L. Sandwick, assumes that women will probably continue to do the greater part of the teaching in our public schools, since it is generally recognized that they are better suited than men to instruct young children. The writer maintains, however, that any further increase in the relative number of women teachers would not be to the interests of education. He freely admits the softening and humanizing influence exerted by women, which accounts, in great part, for the change from the rough school of fifty years ago, from which the teacher was not seldom "pitched into the road by his bigger pupils," to the happy, orderly schoolroom of to-day. Women teachers, moreover, have accepted salaries scarcely half what men of like capacity would have accepted, and have thus been the means of extending the public-school system to a point far beyond what taxpayers would have borne if equal intelligence had been secured from men.

At the present time, according to this writer, women teachers outnumber the men in high schools; and below the high schools they reign supreme. Many large city schools of grammar grade employ no men teachers. Owing to the fact that the majority of boys and girls never come under the instruction of men, there is certainly danger of a one-sided development of the pupils. Both sexes are being educated by the sex whose relation to the political and industrial systems is not usually either that of voters or wage-earners. The basis of this last statement is the fact that less than one woman in five is engaged in earning a living, and of these, comparatively few are under the necessity of so doing. Many of them have no one dependent upon them for support, and would not suffer if thrown out of employment. In many cases, their earnings are additional to the support given them by others, and are regarded as supplementary to the family budget. "It might naturally be inferred that the education of both sexes by that sex upon which the necessity of earning a living is rarely imposed would tend to keep economic considerations in the background. And it is true. Even in the higher grades, economic independence is seldom a conscious aim; and the æsthetic has a larger place

than the useful. There ought to be more sympathy than there is for the boy with a yearning, as he enters the age of adolescence, to get out into the workaday world and earn a place for himself; a thing which the enrollment shows he is pretty likely to do if school does not prove that he will be the gainer by the delay or appeal to this side of his nature."

WHERE WOMEN FAIL IN THE APPEAL TO BOY-NATURE.

Because women, as a rule, are interested in the æsthetic rather than the practical or industrial side of life, the boy pupil, not finding this latter side emphasized in his school work, and arguing from the fact that women teachers so greatly predominate that education is chiefly associated with the interests of women, becomes restive and dissatisfied with school life. In the opinion of Mr. Sandwick, this is one of the reasons why so few boys take the step from grammar to high school.

At this age, boys begin to notice differences of sex. They are proud of their masculinity. The voice changes; they are conscious of superior strength, and they love to show their muscle. They cultivate gruffer ways of men, and often learn to smoke and chew, not because they want to be vicious, but because men use tobacco and women do not and they want to emphasize the fact that they are men. From fourteen to twenty, they love football. It is a game that calls for masculine strength and masculine courage. So, everything that is distinctly masculine is admired and imitated; everything womanish is despised. Few boys at this age are ready to admit that women are the equals of men. Even the mother's influence wanes. Her word is not final in everything. She is only a woman, and cannot understand all that men should do.

So it is in school. The woman teacher is at a disadvantage with high-school boys. She must be of a decidedly strong personality to appeal to him. He sees intuitively that the tastes and preferences of women are different from those of men, and he is not at all ready to take a woman teacher's advice in choosing a course of action for himself.

We believe thoroughly in coeducation; but coeducation does not exist when both sexes are educated by one. The living teacher and the ideal his personality presents is more effective than anything else in holding students in school. The lady teacher cannot present such an ideal to young people of the opposite sex. With all the growth in number of schools and teachers during the last half-century, there are fewer men teaching to-day than there were in 1860. In spite of our boasted progress in education, there are fewer school children enrolled to-day in proportion to the number of school age than there were in 1860. If we would hold boys in school between the ages of twelve and fifteen, we must appeal to the more practical bent of a boy's mind and the ideals of manhood which attract him. We must have more men teachers.

THE SALARY QUESTION.

The demand for more men as public-school teachers implies, of course, an increase in salaries. The average salary of men teachers in the United States is higher than that of women, but still very low. It amounts to about \$337 a year, while the average wages of operatives, skilled and unskilled, for males above sixteen, is about \$498. The United States census for 1900 gives the mean annual wages of laborers, including men, women, and children, white and black, skilled and unskilled, as \$437,—one hundred dollars more than the average male teacher

receives. Competent men can only be secured by increase of salaries and more secure tenure of office. The changes among teachers in the smaller towns, from year to year, are so numerous that both men and women regard their tenure as insecure. If they do not succeed in obtaining positions, the women teachers go home to their parents for a time and perhaps try again the following year, while the men are very likely to go into some other occupation, leaving the inexperienced and unfit in the ranks of the profession. In the meantime, half of a year's salary may have been spent in the unsuccessful endeavor to find a suitable situation.

AN ITALIAN ESTIMATE OF AMERICAN LITERATURE.

AMERICAN literature, says Gis Leno, in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), is "rich in classic celebrities." He proceeds to enumerate the poets, historians, and novelists, as well as divines and philosophers, who flourished in the United States from 1820 to 1860. There exists, he observes, a kind of literature which is "preeminently American, and which, after having had a glorious past, still enjoys a brilliant present." This literature boasts such names as Washington Irving, Mark Twain, Bret Harte, and Bill Nye. "Side by side with these generals and colonels of American humor march in battle array the young writers who carry a marshal's baton in their knapsacks."

Last year, the United States celebrated the centenary of American humor, and the press proudly announced that the home of humor was ever to be found in free America. . . . It would be rash to attempt a characterization of that American humor which is represented by a hundred writers and some thousands of volumes. All of these writers exalt, while they ridicule, the enterprising energy of the Americans in conflict with the stupidity of the administration, the buffoonery of Irish immigrants, the vanity of the *nouveaux riches*. A host of delightful stories reflect with light-heartedness the sorrows of life, and are characterized by a manner so grotesquely droll that the reader feels as if he were transported into a facetious world of circus clowns.

The writer mentions with approbation "The Jumping Frog" of Mark Twain, Frank Stockton's "Rudder Grange," "The Dooley Papers" of Finley Peter Dunne, and George Ade's "Fables in Slang." In 1901, he continues, two books of another kind obtained "a grand and legitimate success." One, "Up from Slavery," is a true autobiography of the celebrated Booker Washington, the first negro invited to dine at the White House, who from being an insignificant Virginia slave has risen to be "a kind of

official representative of American negroes." Side by side with this autobiography is the work of Jacob A. Riis, "The Making of An American," which testifies to the "energy with which these audacious Americans exhibit even in the arts." This writer then proceeds to condemn in vigorous terms the methods of American booksellers in advertising new novels in exaggerated terms of laudation. On this point, he says:

There is not a single young miss just out of school but brings a romance to the publisher. The offices of the great publishing houses are really filled with busy critics and readers. . . . The majority of those who are thus in pursuit of literary fame and profit are women, some of whom gain their end by force and patience, insistency, intrigue, and the recommendations of others.

To tell the truth, this success is a necessary result of the publicity gained through advertising. It is well known that the American advertisement outstrips in audacity anything of the kind in Europe, and the literary advertisement in America is the *ne plus ultra*. No Barnum could possibly vie with the advertiser who wishes to float a popular novel in America.

The writer quotes an advertisement of a Fifth Avenue bookseller who ranks Gertrude Atherton with George Sand, Goethe, and Dickens, and Gertrude Atherton, he adds, "has a talent or genius of merely third-rate rank, if even so much can be said of her."

The spirit of bluff thus prevailing among American publishers may have no weight excepting with the uncultivated; nevertheless, it exercises a pernicious influence over literature in general. As long as American publishers make themselves purveyors of fustian, works of real importance must necessarily suffer neglect. Real literature, such as would recall Bryant and Longfellow, Whittier and Whitman, in poetry, Hawthorne and James in romance, must disappear unnoticed in this rising flood of inflated mediocrity.

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE.

ALTHOUGH he was associated with Darwin in the discovery of the origin of species, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace has never shared the public renown that attached to that discovery, and in America, if not in England itself, his name is comparatively little known, excepting among the scientists. Mr. Harold Begbie has included a sketch of Dr. Wallace in his "Master-Workers" series, contributed to the *Pall Mall Magazine* (London).

DARWIN AND "DARWINISM."

In the first place, Darwin and Dr. Wallace, says Mr. Begbie, both derived their inspiration from Malthus' work on "Population," and, secondly, but for Dr. Wallace, Darwin's work might have been presented to the world in so many volumes that few would have cared to read them. Mr. Begbie writes:

Darwin had been working on "Natural Selection" for twenty years when Dr. Wallace sent his famous pamphlet to him for Sir Charles Lyell to read; and but for this sudden surprise of his great secret it is most probable that the careful and laborious Darwin would have spent another twenty years on the completion of its presentation. Dr. Wallace's pamphlet, so similar to Darwin's work that even some of its phrases appeared as titles in Darwin's MS., had at any rate the happy result of hurrying into the world a brief and concise exposition of the case for natural selection from the pen of Darwin.

But learned men, adds Mr. Begbie, are now beginning to throw over "Darwinism." Darwin's work, as set forth in the "Origin of Species," retorts Dr. Wallace, is safe from attack. But "Darwinism," that is a different matter.

Darwinism (says Dr. Wallace) is very often a different thing from the "Origin of Species." Darwin never touched *beginnings*. Again and again he protested against the idea that any physicist could arrive at the beginning of life. Nor did he argue for *one* common origin of all the variety in life. He speaks of "more than one" over and over again: and he also speaks of the Creator. It is only a few of his followers who have presented Darwin to the world as a man who had explained the beginning of everything, and who had dispensed altogether with the services of a Creator. Darwin must have turned in his grave more than once if any echoes of "Darwinism" ever reached him there.

THE SPIRITUAL NATURE OF MAN.

Darwin and Dr. Wallace differed on the question of the mind and the spiritual nature of man. What has to be acknowledged and recognized is the spiritual nature of man, which separates him completely and absolutely from the highest of all mammals. Dr. Wallace distinguishes between the struggle for existence, *per se*, and the

struggle for spiritual, intellectual, and moral existence. Evolution can account for the land-grabber, the company-promoter, and the sweater; but, if it fails to account for the devotion of the patriot, the enthusiasm of the artist, the constancy of the martyr, the resolute search of the scientific worker after nature's secrets, it has not explained the whole mystery of humanity.

Dr. Wallace is then induced to speak of Spiritualism. He holds that proof of the existence of the soul beyond the grave is already established. The study of the spiritual nature of man, he says, is coming more and more to the front of human inquiry.

Spiritualism (says Dr. Wallace) means the science of the spiritual nature of man, and that is surely a science which deserves a place among the investigations of mankind. Geology is important, chemistry is important, astronomy is important; but "the proper study of mankind is man," and if you leave out the spiritual nature of man you are not studying man at all. I prefer the term spiritualism. I am a spiritualist, and I am not in the least frightened of the name!

It is only because the scientific investigations of spiritualists are confounded in the popular mind with the chicanery and imposture of a few charlatans that the indiscriminating world has not studied the literature of spiritualism. A study of that literature, an honest and unbiased examination of spiritual investigations, would prove to the world that the soul of man is a reality, and that death is not the abrupt and unreasoning end of consciousness.

THE MOST COURAGEOUS OF SCIENTISTS.

Mr. Begbie adds:

Dr. Wallace is not one of those men who believe that everything not made by man must have been made by God. His cosmogony is spacious, and finds room for other intelligences than those of humanity and deity. We are compassed about, he believes, by an infinity of beings as numerous as the stars, and the vast universe is peopled with as many grades of intelligences as the forms of life with which this little earth is peopled. To deny spiritual phenomena because some of them appear to be beneath the dignity of Godhead seems to this patient and courageous investigator an act of folly, a confession of narrow-mindedness. No phenomenon is too insignificant or too miraculous for his investigation, and in his philosophy there is no impossible and no preternatural.

He is, undoubtedly, the most courageous of men of science. Other eminent men have examined spiritual phenomena as carefully and earnestly as he, and some of them have uttered their faith in the reality of these mysteries; but from the year 1863, from the very beginning of his scientific career, on the very threshold of his work in a materialistic and suspicious world, this brave and earnest man—with everything to lose and nothing to gain—has been the avowed champion of spiritualism, and has fought for his belief with a steadfastness which has only increased with time.

MIRACLE PLAYS IN MEDIEVAL ENGLAND.

THE revival of "Everyman" has created an interest in the old English "morality plays," most of which had been virtually obsolete for nearly five hundred years. Prof. Felix E. Schelling, writing in *Lippincott's* for October on "Old English Sacred Drama," says that from the first the English people seem to have preferred the miracle play,—that is, a play founded more or less strictly on the Bible itself, as distinguished from the legends of the saints and martyrs, which were popular on the Continent.

The wide diffusion of miracle plays over England may be judged from the fact that no less than one hundred and twenty-seven places are recorded as the scenes of these performances. There is record of many performances in London. Some lasted several days and were witnessed by royalty in the presence of vast concourses of people. But not only in London and in the great sees of Canterbury, York, and Winchester were miracle plays held in high esteem and popularity, but at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and in many lesser places. The vogue of these plays even extended beyond the confines of England and the geographical boundaries of the English tongue. In Scotland, plays were acted at Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and elsewhere. In Dublin, too, the miracle play found a welcome, and in Cornwall the sturdy Welsh showed their independence and national spirit by performance of miracle plays in Cornish. Several distinctive traits distinguished the miracle play as acted in England from similar performances abroad. The most notable was the preference for Bible story already mentioned. Another was the tendency to link scene to scene until at length a complete cycle of plays was produced beginning with Creation and extending to the Day of Judgment.

Professor Schelling shows how the trades'

guilds, the members of which commonly, but not universally, acted these old religious dramas, played a peculiar and interesting part in medieval town life.

Not only did they provide for the proper training of apprentices and the protection and regulation of trade,



MEDIEVAL CRAFTSMEN, THE ACTORS IN MIRACLE PLAYS.

but it was from the officers of the guilds that the mayor, the sheriffs, and the aldermen of the town were chosen. The custom of linking plays on kindred subjects was fostered by the ambition of the guilds to commemorate a festival so august with becoming dignity; and a natural rivalry sprang up among those taking part as to which should present the finest pageant and the one most properly acted and fittingly staged.

PROGRESS IN FRENCH LABOR LEGISLATION.

A *RÉSUMÉ* of the present status of labor laws in France is given by M. Paul Razous in the *Revue Scientifique*. France, he tells us, was the first to follow England in the restriction of the labor of children and women. By an act passed in 1841, it was provided that children between the ages of eight and twelve should not work more than eight hours a day if employed in any factory making use of power or of continuously running furnaces. If between twelve and sixteen years of age, they might be worked twelve hours, but no child under sixteen years of age was permitted to work between the hours of 9 P.M. and 5 A.M., nor on Sundays or public holidays. In 1848, a law was passed limiting the hours of labor in

all factories to twelve per day; but this did not apply to railways, canals, or warehouses. In 1874, the law was altered so as to prohibit the employment in factories of children under twelve years of age, save in some special cases. In 1892, this act was amended, and it was provided that children between thirteen and sixteen years of age must not be worked more than ten hours per day, and those between sixteen and eighteen years of age not more than eleven hours a day nor more than sixty hours a week.

Women were also not permitted to work more than eleven hours a day, but the weekly limit did not apply in their case. At the same time, the legal limit for adult men was fixed at twelve

hours a day, save when less than twenty men were employed and no mechanical power was made use of. The last important act was passed in December, 1900, and came into force April 1 last. By its terms, no men in factories where women and children are also employed must work more than ten hours per day. The employment of children of less than thirteen years is prohibited, unless certain educational standards be passed and the child be physically fit, and then work may be commenced at twelve years of age. In no case, however, must the working day of women or children exceed ten hours, and these must not be consecutive, a

rest of at least one hour being given. No night work for these is permitted, and they must have one day of complete rest a week. Further, the employment of women in certain dangerous trades is also prohibited. The hours for adult males are restricted to twelve a day, save in the case cited above, when, if women and children are also employed, the working day must not exceed ten hours. These rules and regulations do not apply to railways, but here other regulations provide that the hours shall not exceed, according to circumstances, ten or twelve a day, and the employee must have one day free in seven or in ten.

HOME RULE FOR WALES.

FROM time to time the need of a separate parliament for the principality of Wales has been urged on sentimental and historical grounds, but a practical and definite agitation for legislative independence seems now to be under way. The *Independent Review* for September opens with an important article in which Mr. Lloyd-George, M.P., writing under the title of "The Welsh Political Programme," practically puts forward a formal demand for autonomous government in the principality.

THE WELSH LIBERAL PLATFORM.

Welsh Liberalism, Mr. Lloyd-George points out, has a distinct programme of its own, embracing, "not merely the disestablishment of state churches, but temperance reform, educational reform, land reform in all its aspects, and in recent years a large extension of the principles of self-government and decentralization."

The last problem is the most serious, for in its solution lies the solution of all the others. "Wales wants to get on with its national work, and it finds itself delayed and hindered at every turn by the interference or actual hostility of a parliament knowing but little of the local conditions of which the constitution has made it the sole judge."

THE GERM OF HOME RULE.

In the new Welsh National Council, which is to be elected on a population basis by the county councils, Mr. Lloyd George sees the germ of self-government. But the powers of the council are too restricted. "Why should its operation

be confined to administering acts of Parliament passed by a legislature out of sympathy with the Welsh aspirations and too preoccupied with other affairs to attend the Welsh requirements even if its sympathy could be reckoned upon?"

SELF-GOVERNMENT AND TEMPERANCE.

A Tory government has granted the National Council; therefore, says the Welsh leader, the least the Liberals can do will be to add generously to its powers. Education is the problem now before the council. But Mr. Lloyd-George demands powers also to deal with the drink problem. The Welsh representatives are five to one in favor of local veto, yet the Welsh local veto bill never got beyond a second reading in Parliament. Let the imperial parliament, he says, reserve to itself the principles upon which property in licenses should be dealt with, and leave other temperance legislation to the people of the principality.

PROBLEMS FOR AUTONOMOUS WALES.

In addition, there are many functions now intrusted to government departments which could, with advantage, be left to the council. "Much can also be done to improve the private-bill procedure. There is no reason why the National Council should not dispose of all bills and provisional orders relating to Wales which do not affect very great interests. The committee which sat upon the private-legislation procedure (Wales) bill, while reporting against that measure, found that there was a case made out for separate treatment for Wales."



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MAGAZINES.

American Politics.—The Presidential campaign is recognized by the *Atlantic Monthly* in two articles—"The Issues of the Campaign: A Republican Point of View," by Samuel W. McCall; and "The Democratic Appeal," by Edward M. Shepard. A similar method, applied to the discussion of the candidates rather than of the principles of the campaign, is followed in the September number of the *North American Review*, in which the question, "Who Should Be Our Next President?" is answered by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge and William F. Sheehan, speaking, respectively, for President Roosevelt and Judge Parker.—An interesting account of the political career of Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, is contributed to *McClure's* by Lincoln Steffens, who incidentally tells a great deal about the "boodle" politics of a State where, he says, the people have restored representative government by a vote against ring domination.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. Robert Clark, Jr., tells the story of the successful warfare waged by a member of the Kansas Legislature upon the State machine of his own political party.—"From Blacksmith to Boss" is the title of Joseph J. McAuliffe's story, in *Leslie's Monthly*, of the rise to power and influence of Edward Butler, of St. Louis, whom he characterizes as the shrewdest manipulator in municipal politics.—The same magazine has a character sketch of the "Military Dictator of Colorado," Gen. Sherman Bell.—Lindsay Denison contributes to *Everybody's Magazine* an account of "The Fight for the Doubtful States."—In *Guntton's Magazine* for September is an editorial article on the elusive "labor vote" of the country.—In the September *Arena* (Boston), Mr. Allan L. Benson writes on "The President, His Attorney-General, and the Trusts."—The Hon. Robert Baker, M.C., contributes to the same magazine an article on "The Reign of Graft, and the Remedy."

Discussion of the Trusts.—It is not easy to generalize concerning the magazines of any particular month, but a glance at the October numbers seems to indicate a return, on the part of the editors, to the practice of securing articles on those topics in the industrial world which have a prominent place in current newspaper discussion. *McClure's Magazine*, which has been active in this field for many months, brings to a close, in its current number, the elaborate "History of the Standard Oil Company," by Miss Ida M. Tarbell. In this concluding paper of her very able and exhaustive series, Miss Tarbell makes it clear that in all discussion of the trust problem the transportation question is still at the front; for she has shown that it is still possible for a company to own the exclusive carrier on which a great natural product depends for transportation, and to use this carrier to limit a competitor's supply, or to cut off that supply entirely, if the rival is offensive, and always to make him pay a higher rate than it costs the owner. Transportation, then, is the crux of the whole monopoly question. Prof. John B. Clark,

on the other hand, writing in the *Century* on "The Real Dangers of the Trusts," while he specifies as one of the things to which we must put an end, if we are to convert the trusts into friendly agencies, the discriminations by railroads, shows that other precautions must be taken by the public as well. For example, the practice of flooding a particular locality with goods offered at cutthroat prices for the sake of crushing a competitor must be stopped. Then, too, we must put an end to the scheme of selling one kind of goods at a cheap rate for the sake of crushing competitors who make only that kind of goods and forcing them to sell their plants to the trust on its own terms. Finally, the so-called "factor's agreement" must be suppressed. This agreement consists in the refusal by the trusts to sell goods to a dealer at a living price unless he will promise not to buy any similar articles from a competitor. Professor Clark admits that any government will have an uphill road in accomplishing these various prohibitions. But if a regulation of this kind cannot be brought about, the only alternative, in his view, will be socialism.

Other Phases of the Corporation Problem.—A writer in the *World's Work* considers the increasing popular demand in this country for fuller publicity of corporation affairs. Beyond the recommendation that every business company issue at least a balance sheet, it is not clear that any general rule can be laid down by which any single system of accounting may be applied to companies organized in varied industries. In conclusion, the article advocates the passage of a law whereby 10 per cent. of a corporation's stockholders may demand an independent audit and appraisal, and a report of the results of this audit directly to the stockholders.—In the same magazine, Mr. Henry W. Lanier states the pros and cons of certain great questions in life insurance,—for example, Have the great insurance companies, which have more money than any other institutions, reached their limit? Do they endanger their soundness by new business? Will "good risks" demand lower rates? Some of the facts that Mr. Lanier presents in his article are indeed startling. To say that the insurance companies of this country collect every year some five hundred million dollars from their policyholders, besides another million dollars as interest and the like, may mean much or little, according to the point of view. But when we consider that the total income of these companies is a little larger than the income of all the railroads of this country, and that their receipts for eighteen months would pay the United States national debt, we begin to realize what the insurance business in this country amounts to.—In the series of articles in *Everybody's Magazine* entitled "Frenzied Finance: The Story of Amalgamated," Mr. Thomas W. Lawson is making sensational revelations of certain stock-market operations in which he was engaged not long ago in alliance with some of the leading

directors of the Standard Oil Company and affiliated interests.—In a series on the great industries of the United States, the *Cosmopolitan* has a description of the making of tin and terne plates, by William R. Stewart. It will be news to some people that the United States, last year, produced a thousand million pounds of tin and terne plates, an amount greater by several million pounds than Great Britain's total output.—The September number of the *North American Review* contains articles on "Legal Supervision of the Transportation Tax," by Brooks Adams, and "Four Years of Anti-Trust Activity," by James W. Garner. The latter article summarizes and reviews the legislation of Congress and the important judicial decisions of the past four years which bear in any way on the regulation of corporations.

Current Discussion of Labor Problems.—Two important articles on phases of the labor question appear in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. From one of them,—that on the closed shop,—by Dr. Charles J. Bullock, we have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month;" the other is an admirable study of the intelligence office as it is conducted in American cities, by Miss Frances Kellor.—*Guntton's Magazine* for September discusses the question of arbitration in labor disputes. The writer contends that, to be effective, arbitration must take place before the conflict, and that the arbitrators must be the direct representatives of the parties to the struggle. The arbitrating board should consist of a joint organization of laborers and employers, a body in which both are represented in equal numbers and by the most competent members of the group.—We have quoted elsewhere from Dr. John Bascom's discussion of "The Right to Labor" in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*.

American Railroad-Building.—Mr. Frank H. Spearman tells, in *Harper's*, the impressive story of the first transcontinental railroad,—a story which the pioneers are never weary of telling to their children and their children's children, although in the Eastern States it may be less familiar. Truly, "the days when Dodge ran the line, Jack Casement laid the rail, Leland Stanford drove the spike, and Bret Harte supplied the poem can never return."—Another article by Mr. Spearman (in the *World's Work*) describes in fascinating detail the processes by which a great Mississippi Valley railroad was entirely "made over,"—tracks straightened, bridges rebuilt, and locomotives and cars replaced by better ones.—Mr. M. G. Cunniff (also in the *World's Work*) gives an excellent illustrated description of the New York subway, with a rapid review of its construction.

Popular Treatment of the Fine Arts.—At least two of the October magazines are noteworthy for successful attempts to popularize important art topics. In *McClure's*, Mr. John La Farge continues his admirable criticism of "One Hundred Masterpieces of Painting" in a second paper on "Triumphs," which is illustrated by reproductions of five of the great works of Rubens. The secretary of the Royal Academy, Mr. Fred A. Eaton, contributes to *Scribner's* the first of a series of papers on the history of that venerable institution. This opening paper gives an insight into the traditions and customs of the Academy, describing its

methods of administration, and noting especially the organizing work of Sir Joshua Reynolds, the Academy's first president, and the hardly less important influence of the American artist, Benjamin West.

Character Studies.—In *Harper's* appears Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson's study of Count Frontenac, the great Colonial governor of New France in the last three decades of the seventeenth century. He shows that Frontenac's policy long outlived his administration, for it was not until after the middle of another century that the English triumphed over the French in the contest for supremacy on our northern and western border.—In *Munsey's*, Katherine Hoffman summarizes a part of the material brought to light by the recent publication of the "Creevey Papers," which throws new light on the love-affairs of George IV., the "First Gentleman of Europe."—Very fitly in this campaign year appears, in *McClure's*, an appreciation of the late George William Curtis by his friend and coworker in political life, Carl Schurz.—A sketch of the Archbishop of Canterbury, now visiting the United States, is contributed to *Munsey's* by Curtis Brown.

The History of the War.—It is noticeable that while the articles on the Russo-Japanese war appearing in the English and Continental reviews are chiefly devoted to the causes of the struggle and the underlying motives of the combatants, the articles in the American monthlies are more generally accounts of the actual fighting or concrete descriptions of the opposing forces. In the October *Scribner's*, for example, there is a detailed story of the operations of the army under General Kuropatkin during the four months ending in the middle of July last. This article affords much information that has direct bearing on the subsequent history of the engagements around Liaoyang, which are described this month in our department of "The Progress of the World." The writer of the article is Mr. Thomas F. Millard, who has been with the Russian army continuously during the period covered by the narrative.—Another installment of the "Vivid Pictures of Great War Scenes" appears in the current number of *World's Work*. This month's paper is devoted to "The Forlorn Hope at Kinchau," and describes the actual wiping out of two Japanese battalions in the attempt of the fourth division to take the walled town of Kinchau.—In the *Century*, Mr. David B. Macgowan contributes an excellent illustrated article on "The Cossacks," describing the modes of fighting and marching of these hardy Russian troopers.—In the same magazine, "Togo,—the Man and the Admiral," is the subject of a spirited sketch by Adachi Kinnosuke.—*Leslie's Monthly* has an account of "The Battle of Yalu River as I Saw It," by a brigade commander in the Japanese army. The prefatory editorial note states that the name of the field officer who contributed this vivid story is withheld because of the fact that Japanese custom revolts at the idea of the exploitation of the army by any of its officers. The editors, however, guarantee the genuineness of the article.—Another article in *Leslie's* is contributed by the Marquis Ito, on the subject of "The Future of Japan."—Among the articles in the October numbers which were possibly suggested by the present war are "The Japanese Spirit," by Nobushige Amenomori, in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and "Russia's Red Record," by John V. Van Arsdale, in *Munsey's*. The latter article discusses assassination as a political force in the Czar's empire,

and analyzes the proposed reforms.—Another writer in *Munsey's*, Mr. M. M. Scott, declares that the Territory of Hawaii is more deeply concerned in the present crisis in the far East than any other portion of the United States. This is due to the fact that the Japanese are now the largest element in the population of Hawaii and are steadily advancing.—An important article on "The Personality of the Czar," which originally appeared in the *Quarterly Review* (London), is reprinted in the current number of the *World's Work*.

Agricultural Topics.—The illustrated magazines, this month, contain several articles of special interest to the farmer. Perhaps the most important of these is Mr. Gilbert H. Grosvenor's account, in the *Century*, of a remarkable discovery in scientific agriculture, which he fittingly describes as "Inoculating the Ground." This inoculation is accomplished by nitrogen-fixing bacteria. These germs, as now prepared for distribution among farmers, cost the Government less than four cents a cake. One of these cakes is sufficient to inoculate seeds of from one to four acres of land, and saves the farmer from thirty to forty dollars, which he would have to spend for an equal amount of fertilizer.—"What American Crops Mean to the World" is the subject of an interesting statistical article by Frank Fayant, in *Success*.—Will Irwin contributes to *Everybody's Mag-*

azine a paper on "Harvesting the World Over."—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Gov. Alexander O. Brodie, of Arizona, describes the practical operation of the Hansbrough-Newlands reclamation law in the arid West.—The Yale Summer School of Forestry, in the valley of the Delaware River, near Milford, Pa., is described in the *World's Work* by James W. Pinchot, a pioneer in American scientific forestry.

Literary Criticism.—Purely critical articles are not numerous in this month's magazines. The most ambitious attempt at literary criticism in the October numbers is Miss Elisabeth Luther Cary's study of Henry James, the novelist, in *Scribner's*. This is a serious and sympathetic essay.—There is a study of the character of "Othello," by Algernon Charles Swinburne, in *Harper's*, the accompanying pictures being the work of Mr. Edwin A. Abbey.—Mrs. Mary Mills contributes to the *Chautauquan* a paper on "Maeterlinck, the Belgian Shakespeare."—In the *Atlantic Monthly*, the principal literary paper, this month, is contributed by Mr. Charles Miner Thompson, on "The Art of Miss Jewett."—Mr. James Huneker's article on "Gerhart Hauptmann," in the September number of the *Lamp*, should not be overlooked; and in the same magazine there is an interesting paper on "Literature as a Practical Force in England," by J. M. Bulloch.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Japanese Triumvirate.—An anonymous article in *Blackwood's Magazine* for September says that Field Marshal Oyama, Baron Kodama, and General Fukushima make up a triumvirate which is conducting the war with Russia. The writer begins with Baron Oyama. Twelve years ago, he says, this very marshal was called upon to command the Japanese army in the field against the strength of China. The opening phases of his present campaign are being conducted over the very ground through which he then maneuvered his victorious troops. "The small, podgy, pockmarked man, whom no caricaturist could fail to lampoon as a frog, is Baron Oyama, the Roberts of Japan. We use the parallel to our own great soldier only as a figure of location. In temperament there is no likeness between the two, except that each in his respective country is a great soldier. The little general seated at the marshal's right is the Kitchener of Japan. If we had not known that he was Japanese, his quick dark eye, dapper figure, and pointed beard would have led us to believe that he was a Spaniard, or perhaps a Mexican. General Baron Kodama is the executive brain of the Japanese general staff. Of the third member of the triumvirate, however, we have no parallel in the British army. Like his illustrious associates, he also is small. He is fair for a Japanese, and the splash of gray at either temple enhances the fairness of his skin. Save for a rare and very pleasant smile, the face is unemotional. The dark eyes are dreamy, and the poorest expression of the great brain that works behind them. This is General Fukushima, whose genius has been the concrete-mortar which has cemented into solid block the rough-hewn material of Japan's general staff." General Fukushima made a tour of Russia and Siberia several years ago and learned much about the country.

White Slave Traffic in Italy.—A recent number of the *Civiltà Cattolica* (Rome), following the good example set by the *Nuova Antologia*, publishes a strongly worded article on the white slave traffic. The author frankly admits the unhappy preëminence of both Genoa and Naples as recognized centers of the foreign trade both with other Mediterranean ports and with South America. After quoting numerous instances of young girls being inveigled by specious promises into houses of ill-fame, he gives a useful summary of the various international organizations founded for their protection. Quite recently, it appears, the work, which now has a branch at Rome, received the emphatic approval of Pius X. This discussion of a once banned topic in the foremost Italian magazines will certainly effect great good in the cause of social purity.

China the Stake in the Far East.—The relations of China and the European powers for the decade 1894-1904 are discussed by the political writer, René Pinon, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. In China there are great interests, and therefore great conflicts, he says. Round China, and because of China, the last ten years have brought us a series of fierce and bloody struggles, and to-day the eyes of the whole world are fixed on Port Arthur and Manchuria. In the last ten years we have had three great wars, besides a number of minor incidents; and in addition there has been the Philippine war, which introduced the United States into the Oriental drama. The whole question resolves itself into that of the attitude of China. The Chinaman is filled with contempt for the vain agitation and restless activity of the Europeans, of whom he knows only the more active and the more adventurous. He does not undervalue the profits of commerce, but he thinks, with

Confucius, that life is worth living if it have no other aim than the realization and the contemplation of the beautiful and of the true. The European, on his part (the missionary excepted), has never cared to show himself other than a merchant greedy for gain; he has been too much inclined to subordinate his moral ideas to the needs of his economic life; preoccupied with business and gain, he has forgotten that true civilization is not measured by scientific progress and perfection of machinery, but by social progress and moral perfection. It is because of the third and silent actor in the drama that the world is so anxious as to the end of the great struggle between the two races disputing about the empire of the far East. China cannot remain a disinterested party, for she is the stake.

A Japanese Opinion of President Roosevelt.—The *Taiyo* (Tokio) contains a character sketch of President Roosevelt which is quite a eulogy. The writer calls the President a greater man than Lincoln or Grant. He is much stronger, says this writer, than the Republican party.

Japan's Best Policy.—In a "special supplement" on the war, in the *National Review*, C. à Court Repington considers Japan's best policy. He says: "It is a war of exhaustion, and Japan, since the real Russia is impervious to her blows, cannot aim at far-reaching conquests, and must aim at concentration of strength and conservation of energy, seeking to make the war too difficult and too onerous for Russia to pursue with any hope of final victory. Such result cannot best be achieved by long marches and exhausting enterprises, seeking to penetrate far into the interior, since there is nothing whatever to show, even if the Japanese armies appear on the shores of Lake Baikal, that Russia will, for that reason, sue for peace. The strength of Japan lies upon the sea and within striking distance of the shores of the Pacific. With Port Arthur, Korea, and Vladivostok in her grasp, suitably occupied and defended, a Russian counter-offensive can only take place with great numbers, difficult to provide and maintain, and so long as Japan maintains her vitally important maritime preponderance this counter-offensive will probably fail."

Why Do Not Socialists Agree?—Robert Mitchells, commenting, in the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome), on the criticism of Saverio Merlino, to the effect that the Socialists of Europe "have so far failed to formulate a programme clear and consistent," adds that "the confusion and contradiction is less in the socialistic programme than in socialistic practice and action." Thus, German social democracy leaves religion to the personal conviction of the individual, opposes the Kulturkampf, and favors the abolition of laws against the Jesuits. In France, the socialistic party is decidedly anti-Catholic and anti-clerical. The same contradiction appears in the socialistic views and practice in the matter of the duel. In Germany, Socialists have rejected the duel. In France, it is still in vogue among Socialists as a means of settling questions of personal honor. In Austria, that country of a thousand nationalities and of an eternal and bitter race war, the different groups of Socialists are ranged each under the flag of their own nationality. In commercial politics, the German Socialists are free-traders, while the French, Hungarian, and Swiss champions of socialism have

shown a decided leaning toward free trade. A like inconsistency is shown in the way in which the socialistic press regards the heads of the various states, kings and emperors. The German socialistic press does not notice by a single word "the arrival of this or that prince in Berlin or the festivities which are instituted in his honor." But elsewhere, just the opposite is the case. *La Petite République* hailed "the recent arrival in Paris of Victor Emmanuel III. as the representative of Italian democracy!" When William II., in May, 1903, "visited Christian IX. of Denmark at Copenhagen, the *Socialdemokraten*, the organ of the Danish Socialists, inserted a paragraph of cordial welcome." When Nicholas II., Czar of All the Russias, announced his intention of visiting Italy, the members of the socialistic party, as well as the socialistic press, expressed their approval in terms of personal compliment, although the majority of Italian Socialists declared themselves as opposed to the threatened visit. "Complete liberty in religion," he concludes, "prohibition of dueling, and an active anti-dynastic propaganda seem to me to be absolutely necessary principles of international socialism and to form an harmonious basis upon which alone can be united so many varied forces and directed toward a single goal."

American Administration of the Philippines.—A severe criticism of American government in the Philippines in contributed to the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September by Mr. John Foreman, a British subject who became famous during the Spanish-American War as the only contributor to English periodical literature who had, up to that time, established a reputation as an authority on those islands. Mr. Foreman arraigns the military régime, especially in Manila, as wholly debasing, makes charges of wholesale corruption against the civil officials, and declares that American capital has not yet been attracted to the islands, while in fair competition, on equal terms with foreigners, the Americans have thus far failed to capture the Philippine trade. He states that to-day, after five years' occupation, there is not a mile of new railroad capitalized by Americans. All this contrasts strongly with the reports of former Civil Governor Taft, but it should be said that even Mr. Foreman admits the value of much of the educational work conducted under American auspices, although he criticises certain features of it.

The American Woman from a British Point of View.—Mr. Marriott Watson writes in the *Nineteenth Century* (London) on what he terms the "decline of muliebrity" in the American woman. In spite of the gradual desiccation that this writer observes as a phenomenon of her nature, the American woman attracts Europeans by her "nimble intellectual equipment and her enlarged sense of companionship. She is, above all, adaptable, and fits into her place deftly, gracefully, and with no diffidence. She knows not shamefacedness; she has regal claims, and believes in herself and her destiny. If her fidelity is derived from the coldness of her nature, she owes her advancement largely to her zest for living. Her range is wide,—wider than that of her sisters in the old world; but her sympathies are not so deep. She is flawless superficially, and catches the wandering eye as a butterfly, a bright patch of color, something assertive and arresting in the sunshine."

Woman Suffrage in Australia.—Mr. Tom Mann contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* for September the result of his investigation into political and industrial conditions in Australia. Of Australian women as voters, he says: "To most of them, it was an entirely new experience, and naturally there was a small percentage of odd cases; but over the whole commonwealth the lively interest shown by the women and the all-round efficiency that characterized them at the polling-booths commanded the most hearty admiration of the sterner sex. During the election campaign, great amusement was caused by the wriggings of those candidates who for many years had opposed woman suffrage, but who on this occasion were taxing their brains as to how to secure the votes of the women. Their sudden discovery that, after all, women would probably impart a healthy tone to matters political, and that there really was no valid reason as to why the right of citizenship should be exclusively held by one sex when the every-day interests of both sexes were directly affected thereby, etc.; this, in face of the most determined opposition to the women's claims all through their political careers until they were beaten, relieved the monotony of many a meeting when women themselves, or men on their behalf, insisted upon reminding such candidates of their previous attitude on this subject."

Some Minor Gains of Peace.—In *La Revue*, M. d'Estournelles de Constant has a little article entitled "The Minor Gains of International Peace." He records his experiences in the canton of Lude, Switzerland, where he has lived among the people and discussed his ideas with them. The people recognize that war could only ruin them, whereas in times of peace foreign visitors to France bring trade; the hotels, the ways of transport, the watering-places,—all France, and particularly Paris, are all gainers.

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

Artificial Cold for Industrial Purposes.—In a comprehensive analysis of the production of low temperature by artificial means, Henri Desmarest, in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), traces the history of the idea back to the famous chemist, Leslie, in 1811. Since then, he declares, the artificial production of cold has been carried on by the same method,—the freezing of water by rapid evaporation. All the machinery for the manufacture of artificial ice, he declares, is operated on the same principle. The gases usually employed are sulphuric-acid, ammonia, or carbonic-acid; though sometimes, but rarely, methyl is used. Among the materials used to prevent melting after the artificial ice is formed, he names mineral wool, charcoal, and cinders, in the order of their effectiveness. He closes with a compliment to American family life, in the statement that ice plays as prominent a part in the management of the American home as charcoal does in France. There is no American house, no matter how small, he says, in which the food is not preserved and improved by storing it in some sort of refrigerator or ice-box.

"Spark Telegraphy."—A study of wireless telegraphy is presented in the Dutch review, *Elsevier* (Haarlem). The writer, Captain Collette, quotes, in his introductory paragraph, the words uttered by Hertz in 1889,

Some Advantages of a National Church.—In opposition to the contention that the absence of a state church in America has been a great gain, the *Church Quarterly Review* (London), reviewing Sanford H. Cobb's "Rise of Religious Liberty in America," observes: "Mr. Cobb more than once pleads that the American nation is essentially a religious one. If by that he means that the life of the nation, as a whole, in its conformity to the teaching and moral principles of Christianity, compares not unfavorably with other communities placed under like conditions, we have no wish to dispute the point. . . . We . . . admit that the existence of a state church may be a danger to the warmth and intensity of spiritual life. The compensation, we think, lies in this,—that a church which is historically identified with the national life, which at every turn shows the outward and visible signs of that identity, offers safeguards against impatience, against rawness of thought, against the dictation of individual caprice. Will any one say that the religious life of America has not needed such safeguards, and often needed them all the more in proportion to its vitality and intensity? Would not the mental life of the United States as a whole have gained by a little more reverence, would not her spiritual life have gained by a good deal more sanity and reflectiveness? Continuity, too, is an effective guaranty against the reappearance of outworn fallacies and thrice-condemned experiments disguised as the latest product of advanced and enlightened thought. A national church, elastic enough to provide channels for fresh manifestations of spiritual life, yet anchored to the past, holding adherents by the joint spell of conviction and association, might, if its existence had been a possibility, have saved the United States from many of those grotesque and worse than grotesque features which have at various times disfigured their spiritual life."

to the effect that light is an electrical phenomenon, and that if we take away the ether we shall practically destroy electricity, magnetism, and light. Braun's invention, and other matters connected with the system, are touched upon or explained. It is curious to note the word used by the author to denote wireless telegraphy; it is equivalent to "spark telegraphy;" he also uses the German word "telefunken" (to telesparkle). Perhaps we shall sooner or later find ourselves using such a word as teleflash! At a time when every one is on the lookout for some fresh word to denote some action or object which already has its good and sufficient appellation, who knows what we may adopt to replace the lengthy "wireless telegraphy?"

Prevalence of Cancer.—Dr. Roger Williams, in the *Lancet* (London), treats of the prevalence of cancer. He states that it is reported that the Imperial Research Fund has come to the conclusion that there is no real increase in the number of cases of cancer. This statement he disputes, and gives his reasons for believing in a most decided increase. His statistics from 1840 to 1900 show that the death-rate per thousand has changed from 177 at the earlier date to 828 in 1900, and that the proportionate number of cases to the population has changed from 1 in 5,646 to 1 in 1,207. According to these

figures, which are presumably trustworthy, there is no question of the increase. He then takes up the various ways in which this apparent increase is explained. Many have thought this increase due simply to an increase in the population, but it is shown that the cancer mortality has increased threefold, while the population has doubled. It is not true that it is due to increase of average age, because of better hygienic conditions, for this increase is in the ages below those most subject to cancer. He then takes up the claim that the increased number may be due to more accurate diagnosis, and claims that this is balanced by the fact that old practitioners classed as cancer many tumors not of a malignant nature. The greater increase in men as compared with women he explains as probably due to urbanization, by which men are, to a large extent, living under conditions to which women were formerly more especially subject.

Ancestry of the Modern Horse.—Professor Lydekker, in *Knowledge and Scientific News*, discusses, in some detail, the origin of the modern horse. He finds that the horse of neolithic times was not specifically distinct from the horse of the present. While there is no doubt that the horse of that period was used by man for food, there seems to be no conclusive evidence as to whether it was domesticated or not. His own opinion, however, is that it was probably domesticated. The horse of that time was closely allied to the tarpan, or semi-wild horse, that lived in southern Russia up to a century ago. This was a "hog-maned," short-legged, large-headed beast. It seems probable that the domesticated horses of the Germans of Caesar's time were derived from this breed. The Egyptians had horses as early as 1900 B.C. These were long-maned, more like the Arab horses, and came from Assyria. Where the Assyrians obtained them is unknown, but it was probably from southern Asia, where this long-maned breed has been developed, in all probability, as the result of long-continued domestication. Our modern horse is a cross between these two breeds, with a further mixture of the Arab horse. This Arab horse, too, was itself a descendant of the earlier long-maned horse. The origin of the long-maned horse is a matter of doubt, but Professor Lydekker thinks it may have been from an extinct Indian species.

Is the Lemon Antiseptic?—*La Nature* has a short note on the antiseptic properties of the juice of the lemon. A summary is given of the results obtained by Mr. Bissell under the direction of the Board of Health of Buffalo. A series of experiments, using juice of the lemon in the approximate strength of the ordinary lemonade, was made, and apparently showed that lemon-juice did not kill typhoid germs, but only retarded their growth. The author of the article in *La Nature* calls attention to the fact that these results are in disagreement with the results obtained in Europe, and that further experiments are necessary.

The Psychology of the Negro of Tropical Africa.—An article under this title, by Dr. Cureau, in *Revue Générale des Sciences* (Paris), is a somewhat detailed discussion of the intellectual and moral qualities of the African negro. There is no essential difference in qualities between the civilized man and the savage, the author believes. There is nothing in the civilized peoples that does not exist potentially in the negro. The differ-

ence is a quantitative one. Among the whites there is greater individual difference. One negro is very much like another; whites are more diverse. The whites possess greater extremes; there are among them individuals more vicious and more debased than the indigenous African. The savage simply lacks morality, while the white may be steeped in crime and debauchery. But, on the other hand, the white reaches heights of intellectuality and morality of which the negro has no conception. Then comes the question of the possibility of developing the negro. Can he reach the heights of the white? Anatomically, there is no reason why he should not; theoretically, evolution is possible, but this course of evolution should not be forced too rapidly. It has appeared, in some cases, that too rapid development has killed out savage races,—that, in the attempt to keep up with the civilized peoples, they have perished by the wayside. This, in the case of the negro, would not only be a misfortune from the standpoint of the humanitarian, but also from that of the economist, for negroes are necessary for the development of parts of Africa to which whites have not, and apparently cannot, become acclimated. The conclusion is that the evolution of the race should be gradual. They should be trained to greater skill in agriculture and the mechanic arts, and the highest results should be expected only after a long period of time. It is possible that this may be brought about, however, by the process of prolonged training.

The Production of Sugar in Europe.—The International Association of Statistics has made an investigation of the probable production of sugar in the principal European countries during the season 1903-04, and the *Revue des Statistiques* (Paris) gives the following data: The total production was 5,286,800 tons of raw sugar, as against 5,207,500 tons in 1902-03. All the countries of Europe increased their production except France and Russia, in which there was a decrease. The figures for the different countries are: France, 757,000 tons; Russia, 1,103,000 tons; Germany, 1,803,100 tons; Austria, 1,116,500 tons; Belgium, 215,300 tons; Holland, 129,000 tons; Sweden, 110,800 tons; Denmark, 51,800 tons.

The Psychology of Vanity.—A French scientist, M. Camille Mélinand, discusses, in *La Revue* (Paris), the psychological aspects of vanity, which, he declares, is the desire for praise become all-powerful. Vanity in the beginning, he declares, is more a caprice than a vice, but vices may arise out of it. He discusses vanity of dress, of manners, and of intellect. To prevent the development of vanity, he says, we should begin very early with the child. In fact, it is we who make the child vain by the misuse of praise, comparisons with companions, too much admiration; also by railery, which may cause the child much suffering and teach him to fear criticism. There is too much appeal to *amour propre*, and there are too many competitions and prizes which may stimulate energy but require very prudent use. It would be better to compare the scholar with himself. To work to be the first need not be bad, but to work for the joy of working and learning is much better and less exciting. Finally, let us remember that the advantages we boast of have little value in themselves; all depends on the use we make of them. The only quality of which we can never be vain is justice.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY.

A SERIES of lectures delivered before the Bangor (Maine) Theological Seminary by Dr. John P. Peters, rector of St. Michael's Church, New York, and author of "Nippur, Explorations and Adventures on the Europhrates," have been collected and published under the general title of "Early Hebrew Story: Its Historical Background" (Putnams). Dr. Peters considers the whole Old Testament story and its origins in history and ethnology.

A new edition of Wolf von Schierbrand's "Germany: The Welding of a World Power," has been issued by Doubleday, Page & Co. Dr. von Schierbrand's book was noticed in this REVIEW when it first appeared, in 1902.

John Fiske's "How the United States Became a Nation" (Ginn) has just been issued in attractive illustrated form, with many portraits and a map.

A valuable series of annotated reprints, entitled "Early Western Travels, 1748-1846," is now in course of publication (Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company). The editor, Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, secretary of the Wisconsin State Historical Society, whose work on "The Jesuit Relations" and other important historical publications has won the commendation of historical students the world over, has supplemented these reprints with notes on the history, geography, and ethnology of the regions described. Few readers to-day, we imagine, have any conception of the number of books of travel relating to the interior of North America that appeared during the last half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries. Some of these were published in the United States, and some in Great Britain, and from them Mr. Thwaites has selected what he considers the volumes that are best fitted for permanent preservation as historical sources. Mr. Thwaites is himself an eminent authority on Western history, and his judgment will be accepted as that of an expert. Six volumes of the series have been issued thus far, and it is intended to issue thirty-one in all. The first volume comprises tours to the Ohio and what was then called the Western country, in 1748-65. This volume epitomizes the history of the English relations with the French and Indians upon the Western borders during the last French war, and its sequel, Pontiac's conspiracy. Two of the authors (Weiser and Croghan) were government Indian agents; one (Post) was a Moravian missionary, and the other (Morris) was a British-army officer. The succeeding volumes comprise the voyages and travels of Indian traders, scientists, and men of leisure. All of these narratives have at least the value of genuineness, and form the very best of contemporary materials for the history of the exploration and settlement of the great West.

One of those contributions to history the value of which is recognized only by the few who are constantly delving for fresh material in the record of their country's beginnings has been made by Mr. Burton Alva Konkle in the form of a volume entitled "The Life and Times of Thomas Smith, 1745-1809" (Philadelphia:

Campion & Co.). This Thomas Smith, whose name has almost faded from the pages of American history, was a Pennsylvania member of the Continental Congress, and his relations with the important men of the Revolutionary period, both in State and nation, make his biography important even at this day. The work seems to have been done with great care and thoroughness, and is vouched for by Attorney-General Carson, of Pennsylvania.

The second part of Mr. Thomas C. Dawson's "South American Republics," in "The Stories of the Nations Series" (Putnams), deals with the republics of Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Ecuador, Venezuela, Colombia, and Panama. The method of treatment adopted by Mr. Dawson is somewhat cumbersome, since it involves a repetition of certain topics which were common to the history of all the South American republics prior to the wars of liberation, in the early part of the nineteenth century. There is, however, an advantage in having each republic separately treated. This is especially true in the case of the youngest of all South American republics, that of Panama.

Surely, nobody could be better qualified to tell the story of the Red Cross in America than Miss Clara Barton, who was the founder of the American National Red Cross and its president for so many years. Her little book, including glimpses of field work, has recently been published by the Appletons. After the introductory chapter, dealing with the early history of the organization, Miss Barton describes, in succession, the various calamities and periods of distress during which the society has rendered such efficient aid, beginning with the Texas famine and the Mount Vernon cyclone, 1885-88, and ending with the Galveston inundation of 1900. The longest chapter of all is devoted to the Cuban experiences of 1898. No patriotic American can read the record of this society without feeling that the Red Cross in this country has a distinct field and mission.

TOUCHING ON THE FAR-EASTERN SITUATION.

A very timely and informing little volume is Prof. T. J. Lawrence's "War and Neutrality in the Far East" (Macmillan). It contains the substance of four lectures delivered at Cambridge last spring and a paper read before the Royal (British) United Service Institution in May. Professor Lawrence, who is lecturer on international law at the British Royal Naval College, at Greenwich, deputy professor of international law at



MR. THOMAS C. DAWSON.

Cambridge University, and author of "The Principles of International Law," etc., discusses most of the mooted questions which have arisen out of the far-Eastern conflict up to the middle of June, including those of Japan's attack without a declaration, blockading under modern conditions, rescues by neutrals, newspaper correspondents and wireless telegraphy, marine mines, the Russians in the Red Sea, contraband of war, the rights and duties of neutrals, and the position in international law of Korea and Manchuria.

Frederick Starr has written a brief account of "The Aino Group at the St. Louis Exposition," which has been published, with pictures, by the Open Court Publishing Company. Mr. Starr, it will be remembered, went through Yesso, the home of the Aino, and brought this group of individuals to the United States.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISCUSSION.

Not a few business men, we imagine, will be interested in Prof. Thorstein Veblen's book on "The Theory of Business Enterprise" (Scribners). The author of this work has taken as his point of view that given by the business man's work,—the aims, motives, and means that condition current business traffic. The author deals with "The Machine Process," "Business Enterprise," "Business Principles," "The Use of Loan Credit," "Modern Business Capital," "The Theory of Modern Warfare," "Business Principles in Law and Politics," "The Cultural Incidence of the Machine Process," and "The Natural Decay of Business Enterprise." Professor Veblen is shrewd and original in analysis, and has a facility in the statement of his positions that is, to say the least, unusual in academic treatises.

President Charles F. Thwing has done a useful service in collecting the opinions of practical men of affairs engaged chiefly in the lines of banking, transportation, and insurance concerning the value of a college training to the business man and presenting them in a little book of one hundred and fifty pages (Appletons). There is also a chapter on the advantages which a college may give to man as man; for, in Dr. Thwing's opinion, "the human worth of the college is incomparably superior to its worth in the training of efficient administrators."

A text-book which, it would seem, should speedily find a place for itself in academies, high schools, and business colleges is "A Geography of Commerce," compiled by Dr. John N. Tilden, author of "A Commercial Geography," and Albert Clarke, president of the United States Industrial Commission (Boston: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.). In this work, the various countries of the world are treated in the order of the importance of their existing commerce with the United States, while the industries and commerce of our own country receive much fuller consideration than is given to those of any other country. There is a good supply of excellent maps and diagrams accompanying the text.

The political and economic justification of the peace movement is ably set forth in "The Society of To-Morrow," by G. de Molinari, a translation of which has just been published by the Putnams. The appendix contains tables on the cost of war and of preparation for war, from 1898 to 1904, compiled by Edward Atkinson.

The latest volume in the Citizen's Library (Macmillan) is Prof. David Kinley's treatise on "Money." While this writer covers the ground recently occupied by Professor Laughlin's "Principles of Money," and in part by Professor Scott's "Money and Banking," he

is not fully in accord with either of those writers on all points. Especially in his view of the influence of credit, Professor Kinley holds an independent position, maintaining that credit is one of the determinants of the price-level.

FOUR NEW NOVELS.

Mr. Alfred Henry Lewis has written another political novel, even more of a novel and more political than



MR. ALFRED HENRY LEWIS.

"The Boss." The new story is entitled "The President" (Barnes), and is full of dramatic incidents. Washington, Wall Street, and all the great game of national politics form the theme, while a tale of love and intrigue runs throughout. The illustrations are in color, by Jay Hambridge.

Irving Bacheller has gone the way of many other writers in an attempt to produce a Roman story. His novels

of American life have been accorded success, and it is to be regretted that he has left a field of writing peculiarly his own. The new tale, "Virgilius" (Harpers), is of the time of the birth of the Saviour, the scenes being in Rome under Augustus, and in Jerusalem under Herod. "Virgilius" is unfortunately weak. The situations are violent, but not strong. The scenes, some of which, like the visit of the Wise Men and the Angelic Chorus, offer great possibilities, fail to create an atmosphere; and the characters, while they are as good and as bad as it is possible for people to be, are story-book people only.

Henry Seton Merriman's latest (and last) novel, "The Last Hope" (Scribners), will hold the reader's interest throughout. It is a story of a Dauphin of France, grandson of Louis XVII., and of an attempt, in the troublous times of 1840-50, to place him on the throne and thus to perpetuate the Bourbon line.

Rose Cecil O'Neill, whose distinctive work in illustrating has been appearing for some time, makes her *début* in the literary field with "The Loves of Edwy" (Lothrop). Miss O'Neill's literary style is distinctive, and remarkably like her drawing in being highly exaggerated. The employment of words and phrases the meaning of which is extremely vague detracts largely from the enjoyment of the book. The story is really a vehicle for a good many trite sayings, and for the portrayal of some very strange people whom the reader will be glad to know of in the abstract only. On the whole, the book displays considerable originality.

ON LITERARY TOPICS.

A critical biography of Émile Zola from the pen of Mr. Ernest A. Vizetelly has just been brought out by John Lane. Mr. Vizetelly was associated with the late French master for many years, most of the English translations of Zola's works being the product of his pen. Enjoying Zola's friendship, and being thoroughly familiar with his work, views, and aspirations, Mr. Vizetelly is unusually well equipped for his task. He throws sidelights on the man by sketching pen portraits

of the novelist's friends, rivals, and enemies, and reviews social and literary tendencies of the times. Frequent quotations from the novelist's writings are interspersed in the text, which is also varied by excerpts from private letters and brightened with numerous portraits and other illustrations.

"Journalism and Literature" (Houghton, Mifflin), by H. W. Boynton, is made up of a series of critical papers which have appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*. They deal for the most part with present-day tendencies in American literature.

The National Library series of little volumes issued by Cassells is very convenient in size and satisfactory in make-up. The volumes "Edgar Allan Poe's Tales" and "The Pilgrim's Progress" are before us.

"New England in Letters" is the title of a little book recording a series of pilgrimages to the New England scenes and places associated with the men and women who have helped to make our national literature (New York: A. Wessels Company). The author, Mr. Rufus Rockwell Wilson, is known by his "Rambles in Colonial Byways" and other attractive descriptive works. The writers whose homes and haunts are described in this book are Longfellow, Whittier, Hawthorne, Emerson, Holmes, and many other literary worthies of Concord, Cambridge, and Boston. There is also an entertaining chapter devoted to Connecticut authors, and a chapter on "The Berkshires and Beyond" includes some interesting allusions to William Cullen Bryant.

PHILOSOPHY, EXPOSITORY AND HISTORICAL.

In his "Outlines of Psychology" (Macmillan), Dr. Josiah Royce, professor of the history of philosophy at Harvard, presupposes a serious reader, not, he says, "one trained either in experimental methods or in philosophical inquiries." He endeavors "to tell him a few things that seem important, regarding the most fundamental and general processes, laws, and conditions of mental life." The whole volume, in fact, which is sub-headed "An Elementary Treatise, with Some Practical Applications," is free from technical details, and is presented in Dr. Royce's own charming style.

An ambitious and yet not heavy work is Dr. William Turner's "History of Philosophy" (Ginn). This is a comprehensive history, presented primarily as a textbook, covering the entire field of philosophy to the present day, written in the spirit of recent scholarship, and presented in an attractive typographical form. Dr. Turner is professor of the history of philosophy in the St. Paul Seminary.

Gabriel Tarde's rather famous work, "The Laws of Imitation," has been translated (from the second French edition) by Elsie Clews Parsons, and Prof. Franklin H. Giddings (of Columbia) has written an introduction to the volume (Holt). Dr. Tarde, who is professor of modern philosophy in the Collège de France and a member



MR. ERNEST A. VIZETELLY.

of the Institute, has been a pioneer in that section of the philosophical field in which he writes.

Several months before his death, the late Henry Sidgwick, professor of moral philosophy at Cambridge University, completed a work on philosophy, which has since been published, combined with a course of lectures, in the whole of which an attempt is made to define the scope and relations of philosophy, especially to psychology, logic, and history. The volume has been issued (Macmillan) under the title "Philosophy: Its Scope and Relations."

Prof. James Mark Baldwin's "Development and Evolution" (Macmillan) is intended to complement his first work, "Social and Ethical Interpretations." Professor Baldwin's work at Princeton University needs no introduction or qualification. In this volume, which includes treatment of psychophysical evolution, evolution by orthoplasy, and the theory of genetic modes, he has combined philosophic style with a smooth and pleasing diction,—so desirable and yet so rare among scientific writers.

"An account of the philosophical development, which shall contain the most of what a student can fairly be expected to get from a college course, and which shall be adapted to class-room work," is what Dr. Arthur Kenyon Rogers has attempted to do in his "Student's History of Philosophy" (Macmillan). Dr. Rogers is professor of philosophy in Butler College.

SOME NEW WORKS ON PHYSIOGRAPHY AND ELECTRICITY.

Up to thirty years ago, the works published on earthquakes were little more than narratives of disasters. Scientific study of the subject began with the invention of the seismograph, the instrument by which is registered the violence of earthquake shocks. The first real scientific study of earthquakes in attractive, comprehensive typographical form is "Earthquakes in the Light of the New Seismology" (Putnam's), by Clarence Edward Dutton, major in the United States army, and author of "The High Plateaus of Utah," "Hawaiian Volcanoes," "The Charleston Earthquake," etc. This volume is well illustrated.

Dr. Edwin Grant Dexter's book on "Weather Influences" (Macmillan) is, so far as we know, the first successful attempt to bring within the compass of a single convenient-sized volume the results of scientific investigations into the physiological effects of meteorological conditions. The relations of weather states to the child, crime, insanity, health, suicide, drunkenness, attention, and literature form subjects for chapters, and will indicate the range of the book. Dr. Dexter is professor of education at the University of Illinois.

"Practical Lessons in Electricity" consists of "The Elements of Electricity and the Electric Current," by L. K. Sager, formerly assistant examiner of the United States Patent Office; "Electric Wiring," by H. C. Cushing, Jr., author of "Standard Wiring for Electric Light and Power," and "Storage Batteries," by Dr. F. B. Crocker, of Columbia University. The whole is "selected from the text-books in the electrical engineering course of the American School of Correspondence at the Armour Institute of Technology," in Chicago.

Dr. O. Rosenbach's "Physician vs. Bacteriologist" has been translated from the original German by Dr. Achilles Rose and brought out in this country by the Funk & Wagnalls Company. Dr. Rosenbach's aim is to oppose "unjustified and unwarranted claims of the bac-

teriologist, aiming directly at tuberculin and the legion of serums." He criticises what he calls "morbid specialism" in medicine.

Israel C. Russell, professor of geology in the University of Michigan, has prepared a volume on North America for "The Regions of the World" series, which the Appletons are issuing under the editorship of Mr. H. J. Mackinder, of Oxford. Professor Russell's book is comprehensive, even exhaustive, and is copiously illustrated with maps and diagrams.

EDUCATIONAL AND REFERENCE BOOKS.

A useful little manual for all who are interested in educational matters, and, indeed, as a text-book itself, is Dr. Cheesman A. Herrick's "Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education," which has just been issued by the Macmillans. Dr. Herrick is director of the School of Commerce which is part of the Philadelphia Central High School, and brings to his task a scholarship which has been vitalized by long and active contact with the business world.

"Nay vwooe kawng taung whar may?"—Do you speak Chinese?—greet us on the cover of Dr. Walter Brounder's interesting volume, "Chinese Made Easy" (Macmillan). This is a scholarly but not abstruse outline of the genius, structure, and distribution of the Chinese language, with lists and definitions. In the compilation, Dr. Brounder has been assisted by Fung Yuet Mow, a Chinese missionary in New York.

"The Teaching of English" (Longmans), written in collaboration by Profs. G. R. Carpenter and F. T. Baker, of Columbia University, and by Prof. F. N. Scott, Ph.D., of the University of Michigan, has recently appeared in the American Teachers Series. Although intended primarily for teachers, the book will be found to be of interest to all people of literary tastes. The authors are among the foremost teachers of English in this country, and their discussion of the methods employed and the results obtained, together with a history of study of our mother tongue, is highly instructive and entertaining.

The American Jewish Year Book for 1904-1905 (5665), edited by Cyrus Adler and Henrietta Szold, has just been issued by the Jewish Publication Society of America. It is the sixth volume, and is prevailingly biographical in character. The two chief phases considered are the biographical sketches and the passport question, the latter particularly with reference to Russia.

Mr. Hamilton Busbey, well known as an authority on horses, has contributed a volume on "The Trotting and the Pacing Horse in America" to "The American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan). The book contains enough of common interest to make it appeal to the general reader as well as to the horse-fancier.

OTHER LATE BOOKS.

An entirely new biographical sketch of Emperor William of Germany, under the title "Imperator et Rex," by the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress," has been issued by the Harpers. In this well-illustrated sketch, the Kaiser is shown to be a warm-hearted, impulsive man, with a deep love for family and home.

His family and charming home life are described with picturesque touches.

"Man and Superman" (Brentano) is the title of a brilliantly written drama by George Bernard Shaw, which is subtitled "A Comedy and a Philosophy." Every one who has enjoyed "An Unsocial Socialist," "The Quintessence of Ibsenism," and "Candida" will find in "Man and Superman" the same crisp phrasing of philosophical and witty truths. It is the story of a modern Don Juan, and is supplemented by an exposition of the author's philosophical and social views, under the heading "The Revolutionist's Handbook."

Mary Platt Parmele, author of "The Kingdom of the Invisible," has written a plain but searching little booklet entitled "Christian Science, — Is It Christian? Is It Science?" (J. F. Taylor). The conclusion may be found in these words: "Mrs. Eddy has not discovered Idealism. What she has done is to lay violent hands upon an old Philosophy which will not die because it contains a sublime truth, and then to supplement this misunderstood truth with an unrighteous addition of her own, which is *not* true."

In her own gentle, thought-provoking way, Margaret E. Sangster has written a pleasant volume entitled "The Little Kingdom of Home" (J. F. Taylor). It consists of good advice to American home-makers,—a plea for a quiet, gentle home life which shall bring out the best in our boys and girls.

"Old Gorgon Graham," the "self-made merchant," who has charmed us all by his homely, pungent wisdom, has been writing more letters to his son, and they show no diminution of humor or wisdom. Mr. George Lorimer's second volume, which has just been brought out by Doubleday, Page & Co., is somewhat of a departure from his first, in that it deals with larger

problems. These letters are from old John Graham to his son, not the subordinate clerk, but one of the managers of his business. This volume is illustrated.



MR. GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.



MR. GEORGE LORIMER.



BOOKS RECENTLY RECEIVED.

- Adventures of Buffalo Bill, The. By Col. W. F. Cody. Harpers.
- American Boy's Life of Theodore Roosevelt. By Edward Stratmeyer. Lee & Shepard.
- American Myths and Legends. By Charles M. Skinner. Lippincott.
- Analytical Psychology. By Lightner Witmer. Ginn & Co.
- Assyrian and Babylonian Letters. By Robert Francis Harper. University of Chicago Press.
- Blue Grass Cook Book, The. By Minnie C. Fox. Fox, Duffield.
- Boys' Self-Governing Clubs. By Winifred Buck. Macmillan.
- Brief History of Mathematics, A. By Wooster Woodruff Beman and David Eugene Smith. (Translation of Dr. Karl Fink's *Geschichte der Elementar-Mathematik*.)
- Broader Elementary Education. By J. P. Gordy. Hinds & Noble.
- Castle Comedy, The. (Illustrated edition.) By Thompson Buchanan. Harpers.
- Child Mind, The. By R. H. Bretherton. John Lane.
- Comments of Ruskin on the *Divina Commedia*. By George P. Huntington. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Compendium of Drawing. Two volumes. American School of Correspondence.
- Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe, The. By Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas L. Stedman. W. R. Jenkins.
- Composition and Rhetoric. By A. Howry Espenshade. D. C. Heath & Co.
- Control of Heredity. By Casper Lavater Redfield. Monarch Book Company.
- Daniel Webster for Young Americans. Little, Brown.
- Dante and the English Poets from Chaucer to Tennyson. Henry Holt & Co.
- De Monarchia of Dante Alighieri, The. By Aurelia Henry. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Divisions of a Book-Lover, The. By Adrian H. Joline. Harpers.
- Eighteenth Century Anthology, An. By Alfred Austin. H. M. Caldwell.
- Electro Diagnosis and Electro Therapeutics. By Dr. Toby Cohn. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Elementary Electricity and Magnetism. By Dugald C. Jackson and John Price Jackson. Macmillan.
- Elementary Woodworking. By Edwin W. Foster. Ginn.
- English and Scottish Popular Ballads. By Helen Child Sargent and George Lyman Kittredge. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Famous Assassinations. By Francis Johnson. A. C. McClurg.
- Fever Nursing. By Reynold Webb Wilcox. P. Blakiston's Sons Company.
- Food and Cookery for the Sick and Convalescent. By Fannie M. Farmer. Little, Brown.
- Fundamentals of Child Study. By Edwin H. Kirkpatrick. Macmillan.
- Fusser's Book, The. By Anna Archibald and Georgina Jones. Fox, Duffield.
- General History of Commerce. By William Clarence Webster. Ginn & Co.
- Great Revivals and the Great Republic. By Warren A. Candler. Smith & Lamar.
- Greek Story and Song. By Rev. Alfred J. Church. Macmillan.
- Hall of Fame, The. By Albert Banks. The Christian Herald.
- History of Ancient Education. By Samuel G. Williams. C. W. Bardeen.
- History of Mediæval Education. By Samuel Williams. C. W. Bardeen.
- Home Thoughts. By C. A. S. Barnes.
- How We Are Fed. By James Franklin Chamberlain. Macmillan.
- Introduction to Physical Science. By Alfred Payson Gage. Ginn & Co.
- Introduction to Psychology. By Mary Whiton Calkins. Macmillan.
- Introduction to the Bible for Teachers and Children, An. By Georgia Louise Chamberlain. University of Chicago Press.
- Introduction to the History of Modern Philosophy, An. By Arthur Stone Dewing. Lippincott.
- Journey of Coronado, The. By George Parker Winship. A. S. Barnes.
- La Chronique de France. By Pierre de Coubertin.
- Last Days of Lincoln. By John Irving Pearce, Jr. Laird & Lee.
- Lessons in Astronomy. By Charles A. Young. Ginn & Co.
- Life-Giving Spirit, The. By S. Arthur Cook. Jennings & Pye.
- Little Sketches of Famous Beef Cattle. By Charles S. Plumb.
- Little Tea Book, The. By Arthur Gray. Baker & Taylor.
- Macbeth (the "First Folio" Shakespeare). Thomas Y. Crowell.
- Machiavelli and the Modern State. By Louis Dyer. Ginn & Co.
- Man Preparing for Other Worlds. By W. T. Moore. Christian Publishing Co.
- Manual of Forensic Quotations. By Leon Mead and F. Newell Gilbert. J. F. Taylor.
- Marie Corelli, The Writer and the Woman. By T. F. G. Coates and R. S. Warren Bell. George W. Jacobs Co.
- Memories of Jane Cunningham Croly—"Jennie June." G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Mind Power and Privileges. By Albert S. Olston. T. Y. Crowell.
- Misrepresentative Men. By Henry Graham. Fox, Duffield.
- Modern Age, The. By Philip Van Ness Myers. Ginn & Co.
- Night-Side of Nature. By Catherine Crowe. Henry T. Coates & Co.
- Over the Black Coffee. By Arthur Gray. Baker & Taylor.
- Over the Hill to the Poorhouse (illustrated edition). By Will Carleton. Harpers.
- Path of Evolution, The. By Henry Pemberton. Altemus.
- Physical Chemistry in the Service of the Sciences. By Jacobus H. Van't Hoff. University of Chicago Press.
- Pluck. By George Grimm. Germania Publishing Company.
- Possibility of a Science of Education, The. By Samuel Bower Sinclair. University of Chicago Press.
- Psychology, Normal and Morbid. By Charles A. Mercier. Macmillan.
- Rousseau. By Prof. W. H. Hudson. Scribners.
- Science of Study, The. James G. Moore. Hinds & Noble.
- Scientific Tone Production. By Mary Ingles James. C. W. Thompson & Co.
- Self-Cure of Consumption, The. By Charles H. Stanley Davis. E. B. Treat & Co.
- "Sequel" to the Real Diary of a Real Boy. By Henry A. Shute. The Everett Press.
- Some Famous American Schools. By Oscar Fay Adams. Dana Estes & Co.
- Standard of Pronunciation in English, The. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Harpers.
- Strenuous Epigrams of President Roosevelt. By H. M. Caldwell & Co.
- Studies in the Thought World. By Henry Wood. Lee & Shepard.
- Supervision and Education in Charity. By Jeffrey Richardson Brackett. Macmillan.
- Symbol Psychology. By Rev. Adolph Roeder. Harpers.
- Theory of Eclipses, The. By Roberdeau Buchanan. Lippincott.
- True Republicanism. By Frank Preston Stearns. Lippincott.
- Two Plays of Israel. By Florence Wilkinson. McClure, Phillips & Co.
- Views About Hamlet and Other Essays, The. By Albert H. Tolman. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Web of Indian Life, The. By Nivedita. Henry Holt & Co.
- Where Did Life Begin? By G. Hilton Scribner. Scribners.